

**PHD**

**An investigation into experienced English language teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques  
A belief perspective**

Csernus, Anna

*Award date:*  
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# **An investigation into experienced English language teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques**

**A belief perspective**

**Anna Csernus**

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy  
University of Bath  
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences  
Department of Education  
August 2018

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## List of Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this thesis:

<b>ALBSU:</b>	Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit
<b>BA:</b>	Bachelor of Arts
<b>CAE:</b>	Cambridge English: Advanced
<b>CELTA:</b>	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
<b>CLT:</b>	Communicative Language Teaching
<b>CPD:</b>	Continuing Professional Development
<b>DELTA:</b>	Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults
<b>EAL:</b>	English as an Additional Language
<b>EAP:</b>	English for Academic Purposes
<b>EFL:</b>	English as a Foreign Language
<b>ELT:</b>	English Language Teaching
<b>ESL:</b>	English as a Second Language
<b>ESOL:</b>	English for Speakers of Other Languages
<b>FCE:</b>	Cambridge English: First
<b>GPCK:</b>	Grammar-related Pedagogical Content Knowledge
<b>GTT:</b>	Grammar Teaching Technique
<b>IELTS:</b>	International English Language Testing System
<b>KAG:</b>	Knowledge about Grammar
<b>L1:</b>	First Language or Mother Tongue
<b>L2:</b>	Second/Foreign Language
<b>LTC:</b>	Language Teacher Cognition
<b>MA:</b>	Master of Arts
<b>NATECLA:</b>	National Association for Teaching English and Community Languages to Adults
<b>PCK:</b>	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
<b>PGCE:</b>	Post-graduate Certificate in Education
<b>PLLE:</b>	Prior Language Learning Experience
<b>SLA:</b>	Second Language Acquisition
<b>[T]ESOL:</b>	[Teaching] English to Speakers of Other Languages

## **Abstract**

Although a significant number of studies have been conducted on teachers' beliefs and their overall approach to grammar teaching, teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their use of such techniques is an under-explored area within teacher cognition research. The present study set out to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices, with particular attention to the bidirectional relationship between beliefs and practice. In order to provide insights into the belief-practice relationship, a multiple case study of three experienced English language teachers who work at a private language school in Southern England was conducted. The data collection instruments were background interviews, scenario-based interviews, lesson observations and stimulated-recall interviews. The findings revealed that a) the teachers used a large variety of grammar teaching techniques to make grammar content accessible to their learners, and often combined different techniques to teach grammar content, b) the teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching tools was influenced by a wide range of content-specific and content-general beliefs, and other internal and external influential factors c) the teachers developed their beliefs about grammar teaching techniques through gaining teaching experience, receiving feedback from students and observing learners' reactions, abilities, progress and achievements. These findings carry implications for teacher cognition research (especially focusing on the relationship between teachers' beliefs, practices and influential factors in the context of grammar teaching), teacher education (how teacher trainers can develop teachers' belief awareness during teacher development courses) and professional development (how teachers can develop belief awareness and their use of grammar teaching techniques in their own instructional contexts).



## Chapter I. Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

This study is an investigation into experienced English language teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques (in this study *grammar teaching technique* or *tool* (technique and tool will be used interchangeably to avoid lexical repetition) will be used to refer to teachers' explicit ways of making grammar content accessible to their learners) from a belief perspective in an English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) context, in the UK. In this chapter I will a) explain the aims, rationale and background of conducting this study, b) introduce my research aims and research questions, and c) provide a short description of the organisation and content of this thesis.

### 1.2 Background to the study

Moving to the UK was a professional culture shock for me. After the deductive grammar teaching (an approach to grammar teaching where students are required to use certain language points based on previously presented grammar rules, Harmer, 2007) I was used to in Hungary (both as a learner and as a teacher), in the UK, at the Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) course I was introduced to the idea of teaching grammar in an inductive way (a way of grammar teaching when teachers instead of presenting grammar rules let the learners work the rules out for themselves by studying target language examples, Thornbury, 1999). I was encouraged to avoid using metalanguage and explicit grammar explanations, and facilitate the process of discovering grammar rules in the classroom instead of explicitly presenting them. Although I was sceptical at the beginning, when I saw that the techniques I had learnt worked in the instructional context where we had to do our observed teaching practices (general English classes for international students at a college), I started to believe that inductive grammar teaching techniques worked better than deductive ones.

After the course I started to teach Cambridge Skills for Life classes in a UK ESOL context. Being eager to use everything I had learnt at the CELTA course and following the instructions of the course book I had received (focus on English in real-life situations) made me avoid deductive grammar teaching tools and focus only on communication. Although my students' knowledge of vocabulary and speaking skills were improving, they struggled to form correct English sentences spontaneously. Even though the course was not meant to focus on grammar, the students were used to learning grammar in their

home countries and they kept asking for grammar explanations and wanted to know metalanguage expressions. Therefore, I experienced tensions between the beliefs I had formed during the CELTA course and my grammar teaching practices. I spent a lot of time with lesson planning, searching for the best way of teaching grammar in my instructional context, but I felt that most of the techniques I tried were unsuccessful. Although I often shared my experiences with teachers I knew from the CELTA course and asked for advice, I found that because of the differences between our instructional contexts the techniques they recommended often did not work.

I started teaching on the Cambridge Skills for Life course and attending a Master's course in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at the same time. This provided an excellent opportunity to enhance my understanding of why I was struggling to teach grammar in my new instructional context. My interest in how teachers select grammar teaching techniques in their practices led me to the field of teacher cognition.

### **1.3 Research aims and rationale**

Research on teachers' mental lives originally had two main reasons: 1) to provide a better understanding of classroom practice from teachers' perspectives (Nespor, 1987), and 2) to support educational reform (Skott, 2015). Although research on teachers' beliefs still often aims to support curriculum implementation, it has been suggested that these expectations might not be realistic (ibid). Recently a more participatory approach has been suggested, which emphasizes the importance of understanding teachers' interpretations of their classroom practices (ibid). This suggests that researchers should acknowledge that teaching is a social activity and therefore focus on understanding the relationship between teachers' thinking and the educational experiences of teachers and learners (ibid). This research project aims to contribute to this tradition of research by enhancing our understanding of the belief-practice relationship, specifically between beliefs about grammar teaching techniques (taking internal and external supports and hindrances into consideration) and the use of such techniques from the teachers' perspective.

It has also been suggested that studying teachers' beliefs has an important role in increasing teachers' understanding of the relationship between their beliefs and their students' learning outcomes 'via adaptive and constructive pedagogy' (Hoffman & Seidel, 2015, p. 106). Studying the relationship between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their use of such tools, I believe, can help the teacher participants

develop belief awareness, which might inform their development and use of grammar teaching techniques. In a context where teachers have limited access to professional development opportunities, taking part in the present study can provide them an opportunity for professional growth. In addition, the results of this study can be used for professional development purposes in similar contexts.

Reviewing the literature revealed that our knowledge of experienced teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching tools is quite limited. Although practical teaching handbooks (e.g. Harmer, 2007; Scrivener, 2011) provide guidance to teachers on what grammar teaching techniques to use in their practices, classroom-based research shows that these techniques often do not feature in teachers' classroom practices (e.g. Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Consequently, they do not feature in the research literature either. In addition, I found that some of the grammar teaching tools described by the research literature (e.g. Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Pahissa & Tragant, 2009) often do not feature in practical handbooks (e.g. Harmer, 2007; Scrivener, 2011). Therefore, I believe that in order to shed light on how experienced teachers make grammar content accessible to their learners, their grammar teaching practices need to be studied.

Critically reviewing the literature on teacher cognition in grammar teaching made me realise the importance of studying teachers' beliefs. Researchers suggest that in order to understand teachers' classroom decisions (including our own), the relationships between teaching experiences, cognitions and practices need to be studied (Borg, 2015; Sanchez, 2010); and the context-sensitivity of teaching needs to be taken into account (Prabhu, 1990). I decided then to focus on studying teachers' beliefs, since, it has been suggested, they impact on all aspects of teachers' work and development (Fives & Gill, 2015). It has also been suggested that the relationship between beliefs and practices is not unidirectional, but complex and dynamic; therefore, engaging in practice can impact on teachers' belief development (Li, 2013; Skott, 2015). Therefore, I believe that in order to understand how teachers select and use grammar teaching tools in the classroom the relationship between their beliefs about such tools and their practices need to be studied.

Our knowledge of how teachers select and use grammar teaching tools in different instructional contexts also seems to be limited, with the exception of few studies (e.g. Borg, 1999; Pahissa & Tragant, 2009; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). To date I am not aware of any study which explored the relationship between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their selection and use of such tools in a UK ESOL context.

## 1.4 Research questions

My investigation was guided by three main research questions. First of all, my aim was to find out what type of grammar teaching tools the participants used. Therefore, the first research questions was the following:

*RQ1: What pedagogical techniques do the teachers use to make grammar content accessible to their learners?*

Secondly, my aim was to gain a better understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their selection and use of grammar teaching tools in their classroom practices. Therefore, the second and the third research questions were the following:

*RQ2: In what ways are teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques informed by their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching?*

*RQ3: How do teachers' grammar teaching practices inform their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching?*

## 1.5 Organisation of the thesis

Overall, this doctoral thesis consists of seven chapters. After providing an introduction to the thesis (Chapter I), the rest of the thesis will be organised in the following way:

- *Chapter II* provides a detailed description of the context of the present study. In this chapter I explain how ESOL is conceptualised in the present study. Then, I provide a detailed description of ESOL instruction in the UK. Finally, the institution where the data collection took place is described.
- *Chapter III* is a critical review of the literature on teachers' beliefs and teacher cognition in grammar teaching. The aim of this chapter is to identify gaps in research, outline my research questions and introduce the conceptual framework that underpins the present study.
- In *Chapter IV* I describe the ontological, epistemological and methodological stances of the present study. I provide a detailed description of the research design, the data collection instruments, the participants, the process of data analysis and ethical considerations, including my rationales for making these choices.

- In *Chapters V, VI and VII* the findings of this study are presented case by case. Each case description provides insights into the teachers' educational and professional backgrounds, stated beliefs about many aspects of their profession (focusing mainly on grammar teaching) and the relationship between their beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices.
- *Chapter VIII* discusses the results of the cross-case analysis.
- *Chapter IX* brings together the results of the within-case and cross-case analyses with the literature, in order to discuss the contributions of the present study.
- Finally, *Chapter X* provides a summary of the main contributions of the present study and highlights its implications for teacher cognition research and teacher education and professional development in a UK ESOL context. In addition, it discusses the limitations of the study, my recommendations for future research and my reflections on conducting this research project.

## **Chapter II. The research context**

In this chapter my aim is to provide a detailed description of the present study. First in section 2.1 I will provide a definition of the broader context: ESOL. Then in section 2.2 I will describe the main features of UK ESOL. Finally, in section 2.3 I will provide a detailed description of the institutional context of the study: Tower Language School (pseudonym). In this section I will sometimes refer to DI as my source of information, which stands for the interview I conducted with the Director of Studies at Tower Language School.

### **2.1 ESOL**

ESOL is a problematic term, as several definitions of the concept can be found in the literature in different contexts of English language teaching. ESOL is often discussed in comparison with other terms that describe English language provision, such as English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as an Additional Language (EAL) and language support in general (e.g. Barton & Pitt, 2003; Ward, 2007). In order to clarify how the term ESOL differs from the above terms and explain why I described my research context as an ESOL context in the following sections 1) I will compare ESOL to the above terms and 2) provide a definition of ESOL as used in the present study.

#### **2.1.1 ESOL and ESL**

The term ESOL was first used in the 1960s, and originally referred to all types of English language teaching, regardless of the social context (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). English language professionals only started to use the term in the UK in the 1980s, because they felt that ESL did not take into account additional languages that their students might speak apart from their first language (Schellekens, 2007). Therefore, in the literature the term ESOL can be found as a general term to describe any English language teaching or as a term that describes English language teaching to migrants, whose first language is not English (ibid). In spite of the fact that the term ESOL can be used to cover all types of English language teaching Schellekens (2007, p.1) argues that in the social context of the UK the term becomes more specific, mainly referring to 'English language provision for learners who have come to settle permanently in this country and who attend government-funded provision'. She also mentions that ESOL

and ESL are often used interchangeably in the literature to describe English language provision for migrants, but the latter seems to be used more commonly in the contexts of the United States, Canada and Australia.

### 2.1.2 ESOL and EFL

Another term that is often used in the literature to refer to English language provision is EFL (Schellekens, 2007). EFL instruction traditionally referred to English provision in the learners' country of origin or at language schools in English speaking countries if students are not planning to stay for a long term (ibid). Therefore, what used to differentiate an ESOL student from an EFL student was the context of instruction or the length of their stay in an English speaking country. However, it has been argued that this division between the two types of learners is no longer so straightforward (Barton & Pitt, 2003). EFL and ESOL learners' needs and, consequently, the materials and teaching techniques used in EFL and ESOL classrooms tend to be very similar nowadays, which often makes the differentiation of these terms very difficult (Schellekens, 2007; Sunderland, 1992).

### 2.1.3 ESOL and EAL

Another term that needs to be discussed in relation to ESOL is EAL. Similarly to ESOL, the term EAL can also be conceptualised differently depending on instructional context (Carter & Nunan, 2001). According to EAL Nexus (2018) 'anyone who has been exposed to a language other than English' since their childhood can be considered an EAL learner. In the context of the UK EAL often refers to English language provision for young learners (under 16) who are studying at primary or secondary school, while ESOL usually refers to English language provision for adult learners (Schellekens, 2007). Although making a clear distinction between ESOL and EAL seems to be problematic, in order to avoid confusion in the present study EAL will refer to English language provision to pupils (under 16), while ESOL will refer to English language provision for adult learners.

### 2.1.4 ESOL in the present study

According to Schellekens (2007, p. 1) ESOL

(...) stands for English for Speakers of Other Languages and is used in the United Kingdom (UK) to describe English language provision for learners who have come to settle permanently in this country and who attend government-funded provision.

Although Schellekens' definition does not describe my context accurately, some elements of it seem to be true of my context. The context of the present study is the UK and most the learners are adults who are planning to settle down in this country for a longer period of time. Ward (2007, p. 1), who does not refer to any specific instructional context in her definition of ESOL, describes ESOL as

the term (...) used to cover all English language tuition for adult speakers of other languages. This includes all settings where teaching and learning takes place and encompasses embedded language support to enable learners to access subjects as well as discrete English language provision.

This definition allows us to differentiate ESOL from EAL; however, it fails to clearly differentiate ESOL from ESL or EFL. This can be seen as a limitation; however, it also offers flexibility. It can be used to describe instructional contexts (such as the context of the present study), where differentiating ESOL from ESL and EFL seems to be problematic. In the present study ESOL is conceptualised more broadly than in Schellekens' definition (2007), but more narrowly than in Wards' definition (2007). When I use the term ESOL I am looking at ESOL provision in the UK. In my context it means English language provision to adult learners, who might aim to settle down in the UK for a longer period of time, but not necessarily. In this context the aim of ESOL instruction is to enable students to use the English language in their everyday lives and help them prepare for English language exams needed for obtaining citizenship or employment. Considering the fact that this study took place at a private language institution in the context of the present study ESOL does not refer to government-funded provision.

## **2.2 ESOL instruction in the UK**

### **2.2.1 The social and political context: migration and ESOL**

Inward migration is a dynamic process which has been a characteristic of UK demography throughout the history of the UK (Phillimore et al., 2006; Ward, 2007). Describing migration seems to be difficult as the external and internal catalysts of migration are constantly changing (Ward, 2007). Reuniting with family members and seeking asylum and work seem to be the three main reasons why people arrive in the UK in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Windsor & Healey, 2006). According the National Association for Teaching English and Community Languages to Adults (NATECLA) (2016), the number of migrants in the UK is continuously rising. While the 2001 Census reported 3.7 million migrants in England and Wales, the 2011 Census reported 7.5 million (ibid). The Census also provided information about the participants' knowledge of English: '726,000 people (1.3%) reported that they could not speak English well and 138,000 people (0.3%) that



they could not speak English at all' (ibid, p. 4). In the group which reported that they did not speak English well 37% spoke South Asian languages and 17% Polish (Paget & Stevenson, 2014). Research provides evidence that many of these people are highly motivated to learn English; therefore, the demand for ESOL provision is very high (NATECLA, 2016; Schellekens, 2001).

### 2.2.2 The history of ESOL policy making

The history of ESOL teaching has developed alongside the history of migration to the UK (Windsor & Healey, 2006). ESOL instruction, which dates back to the end of the nineteenth century, was initially characterised by a high level of inconsistency in provision in different areas of the UK (Rosenberg, 2007; Windsor & Healey, 2006). In the 1960s English language training for migrants used to be the duty of the Home Office (Paget & Stevenson, 2014). Section 11 of the Local Government Act 1966 was the first instance when the government provided funding due to the increased number of immigrants from Commonwealth countries whose language traditions were different from those of the local communities (ibid). Therefore, initially the aim of English language provision seemed to be integration (ibid).

In 1997 language skill provision started to receive more attention (Ward, 2007). The new labour government aimed to create a learning society in order to achieve social and economic growth (DfEE, 1998). A committee (chaired by Claus Moser) was tasked with making suggestions for post-school basic skills training and concluded (informed by the findings of the International Adult Literacy Survey) that about seven million adults in England and Wales struggled with basic numeracy and literacy (DfEE, 1999; Ward, 2007). In addition, research (Bynner and Parsons, 1997) suggested a link between poor literacy and numeracy skills and social and economic disadvantage. Therefore, the Moser committee suggested a focus on improving poor basic skills in order to address social and economic issues (DfEE, 1999).

In response to the Moser committee's suggestion the government created implementation groups tasked with developing the new national strategy for improving adult basic skills, *Skills for Life* (DfES, 2001a). The *Skills for Life* strategy prioritised providing basic skills training for refugees, asylum seekers and others whose first language was not English (ibid). The Adult Basic Skills Strategy Unit (later *Skills for Life* Strategy Unit) was established, which created the Adult ESOL Core Curriculum (Ward, 2007). New teaching and assessment materials for ESOL were developed, and qualifications for learners and the standards of teacher training were established (Paget

& Stevenson, 2014). These changes seemed to raise the profile of the field (Ward, 2007). Government funding for ESOL courses increased, and the eligibility criteria were not strict; therefore, more learners in need had access to English language provision (Paget & Stevenson, 2014).

The year 2007 brought about significant changes to ESOL policy making. The government introduced a new fee-eligibility criteria: fully funded ESOL classes were accessible only by 'non-working dependants' and the ones on 'means-tested benefits' (Paget & Stevenson, 2014, p. 38). In 2009 ESOL seemed to have lost its central position in the *Skills for Life* strategy as the government decided to organise ESOL provision at the level of local councils and authorities (Simpson and Whiteside, 2012). In 2011/12 further cuts were introduced and ESOL classes became available only for those on active benefits (Paget and Stevenson, 2014). These cuts have had a detrimental impact on participation: 'demand for ESOL is outstripping supply' (ibid, p. 40). In their review of ESOL policies Simpson and Whiteside (2012) argue that at the level of policy making ESOL courses are viewed as training for enabling migrants to find employment and make a contribution to economy. Therefore, ESOL courses are becoming shorter, employment-focused and modular (ibid). Due to the lack of long-term funding ESOL providers often need to rely on short-term funding (e.g. 2016/17: £10 million for English language provision for Syrian refugees); therefore, even successful programs' long-term survival is questionable (NATECLA, 2016). Experts and policy makers (e.g. NATECLA, 2016; Paget & Stevenson, 2014) call for a new approach to ESOL policy making which makes English language provision to migrants more effective.

### 2.2.3 ESOL students

Wallace (2006, p. 75) defines UK ESOL classes as 'be[ing] (...) attended by adults who arrive in the United Kingdom expecting to settle there for the medium to long term'. Considering the reasons why migrants arrive in the UK (see 3.2.1), ESOL learner profiles seem to vary. They can be new arrivals or people who have been living in the UK for many years (NATECLA, 2016). In the literature (e.g. NATECLA, 2016; Schellekens, 2007) learners are often divided into four groups based on their backgrounds: refugees (e.g. from Iraq, Syria), New Commonwealth citizens (e.g. from India, Pakistan), European Union (EU) citizens and people from outside the EU (e.g. Japan, Argentina). Regarding their gender, the majority of ESOL learners (two third) are women (NATECLA, 2016). ESOL learners' age largely varies, young adults and elderly learners often study in the same group (Ward, 2007). Even if learners' cultural backgrounds are similar (e.g. they are all Syrian refugees), their level of education, professional skills and language levels

tend to be diverse (NATECLA, 2016). While some learners arrive in the UK with a low level of education and no knowledge of English, others are highly qualified and speak English fluently (ibid). Learners often lack cultural knowledge, which makes settling into their new communities challenging (ibid). The diversity of learners' cultural, social, professional, linguistic and educational backgrounds seems to make organising effective ESOL provision difficult.

#### 2.2.4 ESOL teachers

ESOL courses are run by a variety of providers across the country, such as colleges, private institutions and community centres (Paget & Stevenson, 2014). Although ESOL learners should be all taught from the ESOL core curriculum, the quality of teaching they receive largely depends on their course provider (ibid). Teachers' profiles and professional qualifications vary considerably (Windsor & Healey, 2006).

According to DfES (2003), new entrants to the ESOL teaching profession were required to obtain a Level 4 Certificate for ESOL Subject Specifications. Those who wanted to support ESL teachers (e.g. as teaching assistants) were required to obtain a Level 3 ESOL Subject Support qualification. In addition, existing teachers were required to complete these courses as part of their continuing professional development (CPD) (ibid). For volunteers there were Level 2 courses available, such as City and Guilds 9295 'Certificate of Adult Learner Support' (Windsor & Healey, 2006). From 2013 the level of qualification ESOL teachers needed was decided by their employer; teachers were thus no longer required to obtain a subject-specific qualification (Paget and Stevenson, 2014). In addition, practitioners pointed out that a large number of teachers were hired on zero hour contracts (ibid). These factors raised concerns about the deprofessionalisation of ESOL teaching (ibid).

At the moment NATECLA (2017) recommends Cambridge CELTA and Trinity CertTESOL qualifications as initial ESOL teaching qualifications. In order to become a fully qualified ESOL teacher, they advise teachers to obtain an 'integrated specialist ESOL qualification', such as a Diploma or a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (ibid). Recognising the importance of quality ESOL provision, NATECLA (2016, p. 15) suggests that ESOL teachers need to have access to 'suitable professional qualifications and CPD opportunities'.

### 2.2.5 ESOL and grammar teaching

The Adult ESOL Core Curriculum provides an overview of what adult learners should be able to do when using the target language at certain levels (Entry 1, Entry 2, Entry 3, Level 1, Level 2) (DfES, 2001b). The curriculum mainly focuses on teaching the four skills: speaking, listening, writing and reading, and provides example activities for developing these skills. Although it provides a description of the grammar structures that learners need to be familiar with at certain levels, it does not provide guidance on how grammar content should be made accessible. Grammar is discussed in relation to skills that ESOL learners should acquire at particular stages (e.g. learning how to make requests). The role of grammar seems to be to enable learners to carry out particular activities (DfES, 2001b).

It is important to note that the Adult ESOL Core Curriculum was not created to prescribe how and what teachers should teach (DfES, 2001b). Its aim is to provide a framework for ESOL provision (ibid). The literature often suggests that teachers should take into consideration their learners' needs and interests when teaching ESOL classes (e.g. Ward, 2007; Windsor & Healey, 2006). Therefore, in order to learn about how to make grammar content accessible to their learners, teachers need to rely on other sources than the curriculum. Although many practical teacher handbooks provide guidance on how to teach grammar (e.g. Harmer, 2007; Scrivener, 2011), the literature available on teaching grammar in an ESOL context seems limited. The only practical handbook which provides practical advice on how to make grammar content accessible to ESOL learners, detailed descriptions of grammar teaching techniques (e.g. timelines) and example activities at different levels seems to be *The Oxford ESOL Handbook* (Schellekens, 2007).

### 2.3 Tower Language School

The present study's data collection stage took place at Tower Language School (pseudonym), which was a small private language institution located in Southern England. It offered general English classes (ESOL classes in the broader sense of the term, but not strictly following the ESOL Core Curriculum) and exam preparation classes (Cambridge IELTS, FCE, CAE, CPE, ESOL) to students at all proficiency levels of English. If there was a demand, the school also held Cambridge examinations. Students could choose from group classes, one-to-one classes at the institution and one-to-one online classes via Skype. Group classes ran over a 16-week period and the school allowed continuous enrolment. Students learnt in relatively small groups, with a

maximum of 14 students in each class. The technological equipment the teachers had access to was a computer for playing audio recordings (without a projector). Apart from the white board, the tables and the chairs, there were posters (e.g. world map, vocabulary teaching posters) on the walls of the classrooms.

At Tower Language School creating a friendly learning space where students could feel at home seemed to be very important. Special occasions (e.g. Christmas, students' birthdays) were often celebrated in the school's lounge, where teachers and students from every group often gathered. Every group's morning break was at the same time, which was a regular social event for both students and teachers. The teachers often organised outdoor activities for their groups (e.g. school trips, meals). In addition, if the students had any queries (e.g. how to book tickets, open a bank account), the teachers were always there to help.

### 2.3.1 Pedagogy and curriculum

The Director of Studies explained that their aim was to promote communication (which he did not consider an approach to teaching). Therefore, they mainly focused on speaking and listening practice supplemented with other skills.

At Tower Language School, the course curricula were based on course books (e.g. New English File, New Headway). They provided a basic framework, a guide to teachers. The course curricula were very flexible, the Director of Studies said, and it was important to adapt it to the students' needs. The teachers received their course syllabus from the Director of Studies weekly. It showed what they needed to cover (e.g. grammar) and where they needed to be in the course book. Not covering the course syllabus was not an issue, the Director of Studies explained, but teachers had been asked to document their rationales on their syllabus.

### 2.3.2 Learners

Before enrolling in any course every student had to complete an online placement test. The test measured students' writing skills, grammar knowledge and listening skills. There was no official speaking test, but every student had an informal discussion with the Director of Studies before enrolling in their course. Based on the result of their placement test, students could study at beginner, pre-intermediate, intermediate or upper-intermediate levels. If after a few lessons the student did not feel that they were placed in the right class, they could move to a different level.

Tower Language School mainly accepted adult learners who were permanent residents in the UK and joined the school to improve their level of English. During the summer period the school also accepted adult students who came to learn English for a shorter period of time. The school welcomed applications from all international students, but they had predominantly European students. The students' social and educational backgrounds were very diverse. Highly skilled professionals and students with a minimum level of education could be often in the same group. Regarding their age range, most of the students were in their 20s or 30s; however, the school accepted any adult learner.

### 2.3.3 Teachers

The Director of Studies explained that the criteria for employment was holding a CELTA (Certificate in Teaching to Speakers of Other Languages) qualification. He said that he chose the CELTA qualification, because this was the 'industry standard' (DI). In addition, being able to say that all teachers were CELTA qualified 'sounded impressive' for potential students (DI). The teachers' level of experience was not an employment criterion.

Tower Language School provided opportunities for professional development. The school subscribed to magazines and journals (e.g. *English Teaching Professional*), which all teachers had access to. In addition, they could also access reference books (e.g. about grammar) and practical teacher handbooks. Moreover, the Director of Studies occasionally prepared worksheets about different topics (e.g. teaching pronunciation) for the teachers. The teachers had to fill these out and hand them in to the director, who provided them with feedback. The school also subscribed to an online teacher development programme where the teachers could complete courses about different topics related to English language teaching. They also tried to organise meetings and workshops, the Director of Studies said; however, these did not seem to be successful due to the teachers' busy teaching schedules.

Tower Language School did not follow any particular style of teaching, the Director of Studies said. Every teacher seemed to have a different approach to teaching, which he saw as an advantage. To him, the high level of attendance indicated that students were satisfied with the quality of teaching they received. Therefore, he did not feel that he needed to interfere with his colleagues' teaching methods.

#### 2.3.4 Grammar pedagogy

Tower Language School did not follow any particular grammar teaching method. The Director of Studies was aware that every teacher had a different view on how to teach grammar. To him, grammar was 'providing students with the knowledge that they need[ed] at their level'; however, it was not a priority (DI). He prioritised fluency over accuracy, because he believed that grammar 'evolve[d] over time anyway' (DI). Regarding his approach to grammar teaching, he disliked the way the course books introduced grammar (discovery approach) (DI). To him, deductive grammar teaching was more effective, especially at lower levels.

Grammar was an integral part of the course curricula at Tower Language School. Every chapter in the course books which the curricula were based on covered a grammar point. The weekly course syllabus the teachers received from the Director of studies provided instructions for teachers on what grammar point to cover at each lesson. How the grammar content was made accessible to learners was entirely up to the teacher. The school provided a wide range of course books and supporting materials (e.g. grammar books) that the teachers could use. If teachers thought that focusing on something other than grammar was more important, they did not need to cover the grammar point. They just needed to document what they had done instead and share this with the Director of Studies (the weekly syllabus had a 'comments' section where they could do this).

## Chapter III: Literature review

### 3.1 Introduction

Teachers' mental lives have been a subject of interest in educational research since the 1960s (Borg, 2015). Teacher cognition research aims to provide a better understanding of teachers' 'complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs' and of the relationship between these networks of cognitions and teachers' classroom practices (ibid, p. 321). The aims of this chapter are to 1) position the present study within the research literature on teacher cognition, 2) to provide a theoretical base for my study, and 3) to point out gaps in the literature that I am planning to address by conducting this study.

This research project sets out to enrich our knowledge of the relationship between experienced teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their grammar teaching practices. The available literature on teacher cognition suggests a complex relationship between both teachers' different cognitions (e.g., Borg, 2015; Sanchez, 2010) and between their beliefs and practices (e.g., Basturkmen, 2012; Li, 2013). Moreover, there is a wide range of interacting factors that can impact on teachers' cognitions and practices (Sanchez, 2013; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Borg's (2006) model for the conceptualization of language teacher cognition (LTC) is one of the most well-known frameworks showing the relationship between experience, cognition, context and practice. His model suggests that the development and the enactment of language teachers' cognitions, including beliefs and knowledge, in practice are influenced by interacting factors, such as teachers' schooling, professional coursework, instructional context and classroom practices. In turn, professional coursework, classroom practice and contextual factors can also impact on the development of teachers' cognitions. The main implication of Borg's (2006) model to my study is that teachers' cognitions and practices cannot be fully understood without taking into consideration the influential nature of interacting factors. Also, it provides a good theoretical base, which I am planning to build on by reviewing the literature and conducting this study.

In order to provide a critical analysis of the literature, and discuss all topics which are related to my main foci, I have structured this literature review in the following way: Firstly, section 3.2 reviews the relevant literature on teacher beliefs, particularly the conceptualization of teachers' beliefs (section 3.2.1), the beliefs of in-service English language teachers (section 3.2.2) and the relationship between beliefs and practices (3.2.3). Then, the section on grammar pedagogy in English language teaching (ELT)



(section 3.3), reviews the literature on pedagogical techniques in English grammar teaching (section, 3.3.1), grammar teaching techniques in the ELT literature (3.3.2) and context-based/appropriate pedagogies (3.3.3). Both the section on teachers' beliefs and the one on grammar pedagogy in ELT end with a summary of the sections' main points and my research questions related to the sections. Also, section 3.4 summarizes the main points of the whole chapter.

### 3.2 Teacher beliefs

In the last 20-25 years English teachers' beliefs became a widely researched area of ELT (e.g. Borg, 1998; Borg, 2005; Johnson, 1994; Phipps, 2007; Sanchez, 2013). Researchers argue that English teachers hold beliefs about all aspects of their profession, which appear to impact on their classroom practices and professional development (e.g. Borg, 2015; Sanchez, 2010). Also, some have recently investigated the relationship between cognitions and context, and, instead of a purely cognitive perspective, they suggest a cognitive and interactionist perspective on beliefs research (Li, 2013; Sanchez, 2010). These views have led to a growing interest in the role of teachers' beliefs in different areas of ELT, including the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.

Some argue that the available studies on the language-teaching mind can be divided into four main categories based on their ontological orientation (Burns et al., 2015). Often quantitative studies (conducted from the 1990s) which focused on teachers' thoughts, decisions and beliefs using 'surveys (belief inventories), observations and stimulated-recall interviews, frequency tallies' were labelled as *individualist* (ibid, p. 589). Qualitative studies (conducted from 1995) which explored 'meaning and explanations situated in social context' using 'introspective methods such as diary studies and in-depth interviews' were placed in to the category of *social* (ibid, p. 589). Qualitative studies (conducted from 2000) focusing on 'thinking as a function of place and time, through interaction and negotiation with social and historical contexts' using 'interviews, narrative inquiry' and emphasising the importance of the researcher's positioning were categorised as *sociohistorical* (ibid, p. 589). Finally, qualitative studies labelled as *complex, chaotic systems* (conducted from 2010) investigated 'dynamic, emergent systems that involve the interaction of multiple interconnected elements' using 'interviews, diary studies, analysis of interactions' and including 'analysis of social, cultural, historical and political factors' (ibid, p. 589). Although the aim of such categorisations was to 'substantiate the four-dimensional typology of generational change', creating such clear-cut categories seems to be problematic (ibid, p. 588). The

majority of the studies I am reviewing in this chapter (e.g. Borg, 1998; Borg & Burns, 2008) share characteristics with more than one category; therefore, they cannot be clearly placed in any of the categories above. In addition, using a chronological taxonomy of ontological orientations does not seem to appreciate the contributions of earlier studies to increasing our understanding of teacher cognition and to the development of this field of enquiry. Therefore, the discussion of my ontological orientation and of the literature on teachers' beliefs does not follow this categorisation. My aim is to provide a critical overview of the relevant literature on teachers' beliefs. The first section (3.2.1) aims to explore the conceptualisation of teacher beliefs. The second section (3.2.2) discusses in-service teachers' beliefs. The final section (3.2.3) focuses on the relationship between beliefs and practice, including possible supports and hindrances to the enactment of beliefs in practice.

### 3.2.1 The conceptualization of teacher beliefs

In the world of human thought...the most fruitful concepts are those to which it is impossible to attach a well-defined meaning. (Lewis, 1990 cited in Pajares, 1992, p. 308)

I have chosen the above quotation to introduce this section, because it seems to be true of the term *belief*. Although researchers (e.g. Borg, 2015; Green, 1971) have attempted to offer clarifications for the 'messy construct' of *beliefs* for decades, there are conceptual issues that need to be taken into consideration before conducting research on this topic (Pajares, 1992). Several researchers have attempted to provide a clear definition of beliefs in educational research, but to date no agreed general definition exists (Skott, 2015). However, there are key elements which recur in discussions about beliefs: the relationship between knowledge and beliefs, the affective and cognitive components of beliefs, the sources of beliefs, the probability and process of belief change, the relationships between beliefs and practice and the ways beliefs are held by individuals (Borg, 2001; Skott, 2015). The following paragraphs will discuss these elements in turn.

In works which attempt to define beliefs the differentiation between *knowledge* and *beliefs*, or, in other words, the discussion about the 'truth component' of beliefs seems to be a core element (Borg, 2001). In educational research beliefs are generally viewed as person-specific, subjectively true mental concepts (Pajares, 1992). Although some consider knowledge a subcategory of beliefs (a set of beliefs which are held to be true by an individual based on logical reasoning, Philipp, 2007), in the present study I differentiate knowledge from beliefs. As opposed to knowledge, beliefs can be 'held with various degrees of conviction and are not consensual' (ibid, p. 259). It has also been

suggested that individuals might accept a different position from their beliefs, if it is based on logical reasoning (Philipp, 2007; Skott, 2015). These seem to be distinctive characteristics which differentiate beliefs from knowledge.

In addition, the literature often discusses to what extent beliefs consist of cognitive and affective components (Skott, 2015). Philipp (2007) describes beliefs as more cognitive than emotions and attitudes, and provides a definition which does not describe beliefs as an element of affect, arguing that research on teachers' beliefs does not view beliefs as a part of affect (*ibid*). On the other hand, other researchers acknowledge the affective element of beliefs (e.g. Borg, 2001). Goldin (2002, p.64) refers to beliefs as 'cognitive/affective configurations' which contain a stronger cognitive component than emotions and attitudes. In his understanding, this affective element is not an unnecessary component of beliefs. It acts as a mechanism which represents different types of information related to this cognition. Based on the arguments above beliefs can contain both cognitive and affective elements. They represent what an individual accepts as truth, which can be influenced by cognitive processes, but also by a certain degree of emotive commitment. This is how beliefs are viewed in the present study.

Some researchers (e.g. Borg, 2001; Skott, 2015) also describe the term belief as being evaluative. In belief definitions references can often be found to the value-laden nature of the concept, meaning that people usually attach certain values to what they believe in (Borg, 2001). Skott (2015, p.18) describes beliefs as value-laden constructs which are 'characterized by a certain degree of commitment, either positive or negative'. Although Borg (2001) and Skott (2015) seem to establish a connection between the value-laden nature and the affective component of beliefs, there is not enough evidence in the literature to support this argument. Therefore, the present study acknowledges the value-laden nature of beliefs, but does not wish to establish a link between the value-laden nature and affective component of beliefs.

The sources of beliefs also appear to be part of the conversation about beliefs, especially in the context of belief change or belief development. Building on Borg (2006), Sanchez's framework (2010) of teacher cognition takes a more detailed account of the sources which inform teachers' cognitions, including their beliefs. Schooling and prior language learning experiences (PLLEs) seem to be major influences on teachers' beliefs (*ibid*). This relates to Lortie's (1975) notion of 'apprenticeship of observation'. This means that students during their time at school are continuously observing teaching, and as a result of these observations, they develop beliefs about teaching and learning at a very early age (*ibid*). The influential nature of these experiences on teachers' beliefs have been

pointed out in several studies (e.g. Borg, 2015; Sanchez, 2013). For example, Johnson (1994), who conducted a qualitative study of English as a second language (L2) pre-service teachers' beliefs by analysing their narrative statements about second language teachers, found that the teachers' prior language learning experiences had significantly influenced the way they viewed L2 teachers and the profession. The data analysis revealed that the images that teachers held about their formal and informal language learning experiences were so influential that, even if these images were in conflict with the teachers' images about themselves as teachers or with the teacher education program, teachers still tended to imitate their prior images of teaching in their practices, especially if they were unable to perform the kind of teaching that they considered good practice (ibid). Likewise, Altan (2012), who studied 217 pre-service teachers' beliefs in a Turkish university context, found that pre-service teachers held various beliefs about language learning and teaching before they entered the profession. Also, some of the beliefs held by a large number of participants (e.g. beliefs about error correction, beliefs about the time required to learn a foreign language) seemed to be unrealistic. For instance, 42% of the respondents believed that learning a foreign language should normally take less than a year or a maximum of two years. Altan (2012) points out that these unrealistic beliefs can cause frustration to teachers when they realise that not everybody can learn a foreign language in this amount of time.

Studies of both pre-service and in-service teacher education suggest that teacher education also seems to be a source of teachers' beliefs (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007). For instance, Mattheoudakis (2007) conducted a longitudinal study of Greek pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching during a three-year teacher education program. Her findings reveal that apart from certain beliefs ('beliefs about language learning and aptitude, the difficulty of language learning and the role of the teacher') most of the teachers' pre-training beliefs went through various degrees of changes by the end of the program (ibid, p. 1281). However, research findings about the extent of teacher education's impact on teachers' beliefs appear to show contradicting results. Some studies report no impact on teachers' beliefs (e.g. Peacock, 2001), others report limited impact (e.g. Borg, 2011); however, in some cases (e.g. Lamie, 2004) teacher training seems to be highly influential. Finally, teaching experience also appears to be a significant influence in shaping teachers beliefs in the case of novice and experienced in-service teachers (Buehl & Beck, 2015). In Sanchez's framework (2010, p. 239) this is the relationship between accumulated teaching experience and language teacher cognition. This will be discussed in detail in the sections on the beliefs

of in-service teachers (section 3.2.2) and the relationship between beliefs and practice (section 3.2.3).

Furthermore, the probability and process of beliefs change also appears frequently in discussions about beliefs. Researchers tend to view beliefs as ‘temporally and contextually stable reifications that are likely to change only as a result of substantial engagement in relevant social practises’ (Skott, 2015, p.18). As discussed above, teachers can gain these influential social experiences from various sources. It has been argued that challenging pre-existing beliefs seems to be problematic even if logical, contradictory evidence is provided to the individuals (Kagan, 1992). In addition, being involved in a long-term social activity does not necessarily guarantee belief change (ibid). Liljedahl (2010), who reports observed rapid changes in Mathematics teachers’ practices, points out that the personal significance of the engagement seems to be more determinant than the duration of it (ibid). Therefore, based on the above arguments, beliefs can be conceptualised as stable mental constructs which are subject to change depending on different factors, such as the duration and the personal significance of the individual’s social engagement (ibid). The probability and process of belief change will be discussed in detail in section 3.2.2.1.

The relationship between beliefs and behaviour (practice) also appears to be part of belief definitions (Borg, 2001, Skott, 2015). There is plenty of research evidence that supports the influence of beliefs on teachers’ professional practices (Basturkmen, 2012, Borg, 2015, Skott, 2015). However, recent research suggests that the relationship between research and practice is not unidirectional, but a dynamic and complex relationship where beliefs and practice are in continuous interaction (Li, 2013; Skott, 2015). The present study sets out to follow this recent view of the relationship between beliefs and practice. This will be discussed in detail in section 3.2.3.3.

Finally, it is also important to note that beliefs are described in the literature in different ways according to theories about how individuals hold them (Skott, 2015). Previous research suggests that beliefs can be held consciously or unconsciously, which means they might not be explicit (Rokeach, 1969). Some researchers consider consciousness an essential element of belief definitions (Borg, 2001). However, others argue that even the most reflective individuals do not always seem to be conscious of their beliefs (Gill and Hoffman, 2009). As the relationship between reflexivity and belief awareness is not specified, it is hard to argue that being reflective has anything to do with belief awareness. Therefore, it has been suggested that researchers should view the studies they read more critically and ask themselves whether the authors differentiate espoused

beliefs from unconsciously held beliefs and whether they uncover both in their studies (Borg, 2001). In addition, according to Green (1971), individuals appear to hold their beliefs in clusters, that is, individuals hold different sets of beliefs separately from one another which are internally coherent to a certain degree. He also suggests that, based on their psychological significance to the individual, beliefs can be central or peripheral. Phipps and Borg (2009) explain that core beliefs are experientially engrained; therefore, they may have a powerful impact on behaviour and practice. In contrast, peripheral beliefs are only theoretically accepted and held with a lower level of conviction; consequently, their influence on practice is not as significant as that of core beliefs. This will be discussed in detail in the section on in-service teachers' beliefs (3.2.2).

After reviewing the core elements of beliefs, I would like to provide a definition which encompasses these elements and explains how beliefs are understood in this study.

The term [belief] is used to designate individual, subjectively true, value-laden mental constructs that are relatively stable results of substantial social experiences and that have significant impact on one's interpretations of and contributions to classroom practice (Skott, 2013, cited in Skott, 2015, p. 19).

This definition thus acknowledges both the cognitive and affective components of beliefs and highlights the complexity of the relationship between beliefs and practice.

### 3.2.2 The beliefs of in-service L2 English teachers

A large number of studies have investigated in-service teachers' beliefs and the relationship between their beliefs and practices (e.g., Borg 2011; Li, 2013). The reason why teachers' beliefs seem to attract researchers' attention is the impact of beliefs on all aspects of teachers' work and development (Fives & Gill, 2015). Although some argue that studying isolated mental constructs such as beliefs and knowledge do not solve research issues that the field of teacher cognition aims to address (e.g. how teachers can construct meaningful learning environments to learners, how teacher education programs can promote such learning) (Kubanyiova, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015) studying teachers' individual cognitions (e.g. beliefs) has proved to successfully promote changes which lead to more effective teaching (see published interview with Simon Borg in Birello, 2012). Borg argues that studying beliefs allows us to get a better understanding of the relationship between teachers' thought processes and their teaching practices. Moreover, studying beliefs and making teachers aware of their beliefs is a great example of how research can support practice (ibid). Beliefs are in a complex interaction with each other; therefore, researchers should not study beliefs in isolation, but in relation to each other and other cognitive constructs (ibid). Borg's thoughts are in line with my understanding of how teachers' beliefs should be studied. Therefore, in the present study

teachers' grammar teaching beliefs will be explored in relation to each other in order to provide a better understanding of how different, interacting beliefs might impact on teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching techniques. Hence, this section does not aim to identify or categorize different types of beliefs, but to provide a review of the literature on in-service teachers' beliefs.

This study investigates the impact of teachers' grammar teaching beliefs on their choice and use of pedagogical techniques, which suggests an interaction between two cognitions: beliefs and Grammar-related Pedagogical Content Knowledge (GPCK). However, as previous personal, learning and professional experiences inform cognitions, they also need to be taken into consideration to gain a better understanding of the interaction between these two cognitions (Borg, 2006). Therefore, in the following paragraphs I will also review the literature on how certain sources can impact on teachers' beliefs.

#### 3.2.2.1 The impact of previous learning experiences on beliefs

The literature on English language teachers' beliefs provides evidence that previous learning experiences can influence the beliefs of not only pre-service but also in-service teachers. For example, Farrell and Ives (2015), who explored a Canadian ESOL teacher's beliefs about teaching reading and his classroom practices, mentioned previous learning experiences among the possible factors that might have impacted on the teacher's beliefs and his classroom practices. The teacher in the study believed that he should provide a classroom environment where the students actively took part in their language learning, and he enacted this belief in his classroom practices. The teacher explained that he had developed this belief based on his previous learning experiences. Junqueira and Kim (2013), who explored a novice and an experienced teacher's beliefs and corrective feedback practices, also found evidence for the impact of PLLE on teachers' beliefs. They reported that the novice teacher in the study did not often provide corrective feedback to her learners, because she had been rarely corrected when she was a learner herself. In addition, Rabbidge (2017) who investigated the functions of English and Korean in South Korean classrooms reported that teachers' experiences of how their teachers used English or Korean impacted on the development of their beliefs about first language (L1) and target language use in the classroom.

### 3.2.2.2 The impact of professional education on beliefs

Researchers have also investigated the impact of both pre-service and in-service teacher training on in-service teachers' beliefs. It has been suggested that the impact of both pre-service and in-service teacher training on in-service teachers' beliefs appears to be limited. For instance, the novice teacher in Junqueira and Kim's study (2013) claimed to have confirmed her beliefs in the ineffectiveness of corrective feedback after completing her Master of Arts (MA) program. This is surprising, because during her MA program two weeks had been spent on focus-on-form techniques, and the students had read articles which highlighted the advantages of such techniques. Therefore, in spite of the fact that the MA program emphasized the effectiveness of corrective feedback, it did not influence the novice teacher's beliefs about the ineffectiveness of corrective feedback. This suggests that there might be mismatches between what students are taught during a teacher training course and how they come to pedagogical conclusions (*ibid*). Also, the study provides evidence that in her first years of teaching the teacher's pre-training beliefs (shaped by her PLLEs) seemed to influence her practice more than what she had learnt during her formal training. In addition, Richards and Pennington (1998), who studied five novice teachers in Hong Kong for a year after they took part in a pre-service Bachelor of Arts (BA) program, argue that even if the teacher training program shapes teachers beliefs, these beliefs might not be enacted in novice teachers' practices. They found that contextual factors, such as large classes, lack of student motivation, the backwash effect of exams, a set syllabus, students' low English language proficiency, students' negative attitudes towards new learning strategies, the heavy workload of teachers and the influence of more experienced teachers can hinder the enactment of teachers' beliefs. The teachers, who were taught to use learner-centred, communicative methods during their BA program, decided to teach in a deductive, teacher-centred way after that program following Hong Kong's teaching traditions (*ibid*). The teachers in the study seemed to express beliefs in communicative language teaching at the beginning of the study; however, their beliefs were not reflected in their practices (*ibid*). This is an example where the teacher training program seemed to have some impact on teachers' beliefs, but these beliefs did not influence the teachers' classroom decisions because of the influence of the contextual factors mentioned above (*ibid*).

Studies which investigated the extent to which in-service teacher education impacts on teachers' beliefs seem to show contradicting results (e.g., Phipps, 2009; Lamie, 2004). Some findings show that in-service teacher training can have a great impact on teachers' beliefs. For instance, Borg (1998), who studied the pedagogical systems of an



experienced teacher from Malta, claims that his participant's in-service teacher training had initiated a radical change in his beliefs. During his in-service training he was introduced to the notion of learning styles, which had helped him to revisit and interpret his negative early teaching experiences (ibid). Moreover, he was made aware that he could make use of the strategies that he had found beneficial as an L2 learner in his teaching (ibid). These collectively resulted in a significant change in his beliefs about grammar instruction. Likewise, Lamie (2004), who studied Japanese teachers of English who took part in a training program overseas which supported a major innovation in their curriculum, found that in-service teacher training could have a significant impact on teachers' beliefs and practices. The study investigated both the impact of the training program and the participating teachers' attitudes, methodology and practices before and after the training course. The findings showed a change in all cases towards the aims of the curriculum reform. On the other hand, Phipps (2007) reported less positive conclusions about the impact of a part-time in-service training program (DELTA) on his participant's beliefs. He conducted a qualitative study on the grammar teaching beliefs of an in-service teacher of English in Turkey. He examined the influence of four months of the training course (out of 18) on the teacher's beliefs. Although the teacher had found the course beneficial, the findings - apart from a few minor changes - reported no major changes in his beliefs. Moreover, the teacher's pre-training beliefs got 'confirmed, deepened and strengthened' (Phipps, 2007, p. 13.).

A possible reason why studies (e.g., Lamie, 2004; Phipps, 2007) can come to contradictory conclusions appears to be the difference between researchers' understanding of the concept of belief change/impact. Borg (2011) problematizes the concept of *impact* and suggests that it does not necessarily mean radical change in existing beliefs but it can also refer to subtle, developmental changes. He conducted a qualitative longitudinal study on the influence of an intensive, eight-week-long Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (DELTA) training program on six English teachers' beliefs. He concluded that if by impact we mean radical change in existing beliefs, then the DELTA did not have a significant influence on the participants' beliefs. However, the teachers' beliefs did seem to go through variable developmental processes. Three of the six teachers, who had had limited awareness of their beliefs at the beginning of the course, developed a strong awareness of their beliefs by the end of the course. One of the teachers reported that most of her beliefs had been confirmed; however, she acknowledged developing a new belief in the beneficial impact of basing her lessons on students' existing knowledge (ibid). Also, her beliefs about when 'production' activities should occur in lessons had changed (ibid, p. 378). Another

participant, who reported the least impact of the course on her beliefs, still admitted a development in her ability to articulate her views (ibid). Therefore, if impact is viewed as radical change in existing beliefs, then Borg's study (2011, p. 378) provides only 'limited evidence of impact' compared to Borg (1998) and Lamie (2004). However, the teachers in the study became aware of their beliefs and their existing beliefs seemed to go through developmental changes (ibid).

### 3.2.2.3 The impact of gaining teaching experience on beliefs

Another possible reason for the limited impact of in-service teacher training programs on teachers' beliefs can be the lack of opportunities for testing newly acquired theories in practice during these courses. Previous research suggests that language teachers' beliefs which are based on teaching experiences are more strongly held than their other beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Phipps and Borg (2009, p. 388) argue that 'experientially ingrained' beliefs seem to have a greater impact on teachers' practices; therefore, they call them core beliefs. On the other hand, peripheral beliefs, which are only 'theoretically embraced', appear to have a less significant impact on teachers' practices (ibid). Therefore, a probable reason why pre-service teacher training courses might have only a limited impact on teachers' beliefs is that during these courses teachers might not get a chance to try certain theories in practice; thus, these theories cannot be confirmed by experiences or developed into core beliefs.

Overall, research on the development of teachers' beliefs seems to raise two important points to consider when conducting the present study. First of all, an explanation for the contradictory findings of the above studies could be the differences between how different researchers define the concept of belief change/impact (Borg, 2011). In the present study the concept of belief change will not only refer to radical changes, but will also take into account subtle developments in teachers' beliefs. Secondly, both Borg (1998) and Sanchez (2013) point out that if in-service teacher training courses do not focus on developing belief awareness, they might not be able to achieve lasting impact on teachers' beliefs. Therefore, gaining teaching experience appears to have an important role in belief change/development (Phipps & Borg, 2009). These points will be further discussed in the section on the relationship between beliefs and practice (section 3.2.3).

### 3.2.2.4 In-service teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching

Several studies have investigated the grammar teaching beliefs of a larger sample of in-service teachers by using surveys (e.g., Andrews, 2003; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Schulz, 1996, 2001). The findings of Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers (1997) and Schulz (1996) show that the majority of ESL and EFL teachers in their studies expressed beliefs about the importance of grammar teaching in ELT. Borg and Burns (2008), who studied 176 teachers from 18 countries found that three times more participants believed in inductive grammar teaching than in deductive grammar instruction. In addition, the teachers in the study seemed to express strong beliefs in the beneficial effect of grammar teaching on learners' fluency (*ibid*). This appears to support Schulz's results (2001), which show that the majority of the participants claimed that communicative abilities develop more rapidly if the students engage in grammar work. Borg and Burns (2008, p. 477) suggest that 'the portrait of grammar teaching [in their study]...is one characterized by regular phases of explicit work, a desire to encourage students to discover rules..., and regular opportunities for grammar practice'. In addition, the teachers in the study seemed to agree that grammar should not be taught separately, but should be part of skills-oriented work. This appears to support Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Sheers' (1997) and Andrews' (2003) findings, which show that the majority of the teachers investigated expressed positive beliefs about integrated grammar work. The above findings suggest that teachers' beliefs about whether grammar should be taught inductively or deductively shows contradicting results; however, teachers seem to acknowledge the benefits of integrated grammar work. Although these studies provide some insights into teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching, it has been argued that studies using only questionnaires are often unable to provide valid results (Borg, 2016). Teachers' often choose answers that they consider ideal or more socially acceptable (*ibid*).

### 3.2.3 The relationship between beliefs and practice

The main reason why research on teachers' beliefs has had such a great significance in educational research is the assumption that teachers' beliefs impact on their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). The interactionist perspective on beliefs suggests that not only beliefs can impact on practices, but also engaging in professional practice can influence teachers' beliefs (Skott, 2001). Recently the relationship between beliefs and practice has been described as bidirectional and complex, where both elements are in continuous interaction (Basturkmen, 2012; Li, 2013). In the following sections the above perspectives will be discussed.

### 3.2.3.1 The impact of beliefs on practice

Several studies have provided evidence of the influence of teachers' beliefs on teachers' practices (e.g. Brown et al., 2012; Wilkins, 2008). When researchers found that beliefs were 'correlated with, aligned to, or reflected' in teachers' practices, they drew the conclusion that beliefs impact on practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 68). There are ELT-related studies which also report the impact of beliefs on teachers' practices. For example, Farrell and Kun (2008) conducted research on three Singaporean primary school teachers' practices. Using classroom observations, stimulated-recall interviews and semi-structured interviews, they investigated the teachers' feedback responses to students' use of Singlish (Singaporean English) during English speaking practice tasks. The observations provided evidence of the correspondence between the teachers' stated beliefs and their practices. According to their stated beliefs, correcting students' speech when a Singlish feature occurred was not beneficial for the students. Accordingly, during the observed lessons the teachers rarely corrected the Singlish features in students' speech. The studies reviewed by Basturkmen (2012) revealed that when beliefs were reflected in teachers' practices, the participants were usually experienced teachers or the researcher was investigating planned aspects of teaching.

Although some studies have shown correspondence between teachers' beliefs and practices, there are studies which have reported only limited correspondence and mainly incongruences between teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g., Lim & Chai, 2008; Liu, 2011). According to Basturkmen (2012), since novice teachers' beliefs are in the process of forming, more divergence can be observed between their stated beliefs and practices than in the case of experienced teachers. Akbulut's study (2007) on Turkish novice teachers' beliefs in their first year of teaching revealed mismatches between the teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices. The teachers in the study claimed to believe in communicative teaching methods; however, they did not seem to be able to teach according to their beliefs. The main reasons for this inconsistency (apart from the influence of PLLEs mentioned above) seemed to be the heavy workload of the teachers and contextual factors, such as insufficient classroom equipment and large class sizes (*ibid*). In addition, Farrell and Bennis (2013), who investigated the stated beliefs and grammar teaching practices of an experienced and a novice teacher, found mostly incongruences between the novice teachers' stated beliefs and practices. However, they added that at the time of the study the teacher was experimenting with different grammar teaching techniques; therefore, his beliefs were in the process of changing (*ibid*). Moreover, while the novice teachers' instructional decisions seemed to be influenced by

his perceptions of his students' expectations, the experienced teacher mostly made his instructional decisions based on his perception of the students' learning outcomes (ibid). The general wellbeing of the students appeared to be the main concern of the novice teacher in the study (ibid). Furthermore, Zeng (2012), who studied novice, Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs about postmethod and their teaching practices, reported inconsistencies between the teachers stated beliefs and practices. The findings of the study revealed that the incongruences between the teachers' beliefs and practices were caused by the teachers' lack of knowledge about postmethod and the backwash effect of exams (ibid).

Belief-practice inconsistencies have also been found between the beliefs and practices of experienced in-service teachers (e.g. Ezzi 2012; Farrell 2005). Farrell (2005) investigated two experienced Singaporean primary school teachers' beliefs and classroom practices, focusing on their grammar teaching. He used qualitative data collection methods, such as interviews, classroom observations and analysis of the students' written works. His findings show some incongruences between the beliefs of one of the teachers (Velma) and her classroom practices. Her beliefs about an indirect way of teaching grammar through speaking, reading and writing appeared to match some, but not all, of her classroom practices. When she taught adverbs of manner, she used explicit grammar explanations. In addition, she did not provide a context or created activities which would lead to meaningful communication. Farrell (2005) discussed possible reasons why divergences could occur. First of all, both teachers mentioned time as an influential factor in making instructional decisions. Daphne, the other teacher in the study, specifically pointed out her preference for deductive methods because they seemed less time consuming to her. Second, 'the powerful emotions and attitudes attached to traditional grammar teaching and learning' could have been another reason why Velma was not able to act according to her stated beliefs (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001, cited in Farrell, 2005, p.10). Also, the teachers in the study did not seem to have developed an awareness of their beliefs before they were asked by the researcher to talk about them (Farrell, 2005).

Similarly, Phipps and Borg (2009), who studied three Turkish in-service teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices by using qualitative research methods, also found evidence of belief-practice divergences (ibid). The factors which seemed to cause these divergences were 'student expectations and preferences, and classroom management concerns' (p. 387). They described them in the following way from the teachers' point of views:

- I believe in X but my students expect me to do Y
- I believe in X but my students learn better through Y.
- I believe in X but the curriculum requires me to do Y.
- I believe in X but my learners are motivated by Y. (ibid, p. 387)

Interestingly, they found evidence that practices which did not seem to reflect the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching appeared to show consistency with 'deeper, more general beliefs about learning' (ibid, 387). They also identified a tension, which they described as 'I believe in X and I also believe in Y' (ibid, p. 388). This refers to 'the systematic nature of beliefs', which means that teachers' classroom practices appear to be influenced by the belief that they more strongly hold (ibid, p. 388). Therefore, they differentiate core beliefs, which are developed through experience, from peripheral beliefs, which are only 'theoretically embraced' (ibid, 388). Consequently, core and peripheral beliefs might not be held with the same degree of conviction by individuals. Phipps and Borg (2009) also suggest that the degree of tension between teachers' beliefs and practices depends on whether their core and peripheral beliefs can be implemented at the same time. When this happens, fewer tensions between beliefs and practices can be expected. However, if core and peripheral beliefs are in conflict with one another, the chance of experiencing tensions seems to be higher (ibid).

In a similar vein, using a 12-item questionnaire and classroom observations, Hos and Kekec (2014) conducted research on non-native Turkish EFL teachers' grammar-related beliefs and classroom practices. They found that their participants' beliefs were not always aligned with their practices (ibid). The majority of the participants seemed to believe that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was the 'best' way of making grammar content accessible to learners; therefore, grammar should be taught inductively. However, the majority of the teachers used the Grammar Translation Method in the classroom, which led to a deductive way of teaching (ibid). Also, most of the teachers seemed to believe that grammar should be taught in context; however, the lesson observations provided evidence that they taught decontextualized grammar with an emphasis on drills and practice exercises (ibid). Another major finding of the study was that most of the teachers highlighted the impact of language exams on their teaching, because their students seemed to believe that learning grammar would help them pass their exams (ibid).

Overall, the studies above provide evidence that 1) beliefs are not always reflected in classroom practices for various reasons; and 2) compared to the practices of experienced teachers, those of novice teachers show more divergences between their stated beliefs and their practices.

### 3.2.3.2 The impact of practice on beliefs

Previous research provides evidence that teachers' beliefs can also change as a result of engagement in professional activities and practice (e.g. Borg & Burns, 2008; Swain et al. 2012). This has been observed in studies on the impact of professional development on in-service teachers' beliefs and on the influence of engaging in professional practice on the beliefs of pre-service teachers (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Several examples of the impact of engaging in practice on teachers' beliefs can be found in the general education literature. For instance, there seems to be evidence of change in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Lumpe et. al, 2012), beliefs about inclusion (Swain et al. 2012) and beliefs about inquiry (Rushton et al., 2011). There are a few studies in the ELT literature which provide some evidence for the impact of practice on beliefs. For instance, the teacher in Borg (1998) developed his beliefs about using the students' first language (L1) for grammar teaching purposes solely based on his teaching experiences. Borg (1998, p. 30) claims that 'classroom experience continued the development in the teacher of a personalized, pragmatically oriented system of pedagogical beliefs and practical theories that was powerfully influenced by his [the teacher's] perceptions of what worked well'. These pedagogical beliefs, in turn, appeared to filter further teaching experiences (ibid). Likewise, Borg and Burns (2008) appear to provide evidence of the influential nature of practice on teachers' beliefs. The majority of their participants seemed to express positive beliefs about integrated grammar and skills work based on their teaching experiences (ibid). The findings of the study show that the 'teachers justified their chosen approach to integration with reference to accumulated experience of teaching, observations of learners' ability, progress and achievement, feedback from learners' (ibid, p. 478).

### 3.2.3.3 The complex relationship between beliefs and practice

The above mentioned studies (e.g., Farrell & Kun, 2008) investigated either the extent to which beliefs impact on practice or how practice can influence beliefs. Also, many studies highlighted inconsistencies between espoused theories and practices (e.g. Farrell, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Given that many empirical studies have found that there are often discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices, it has been suggested that viewing beliefs as 'explanatory principles for practice' is problematic (Skott, 2015, p. 21). One of the solutions suggested was viewing the belief-practice relationship from a more dynamic perspective (Schoenfeld, 2011; Skott, 2015). For instance, when investigating teachers' classroom practices, Schoenfeld (2011) suggests including beliefs under the term *orientations*, and linking them to teachers' resources

(such as knowledge) and goals. This suggests that the relationship between content-specific beliefs and practice depends on how teachers' classroom experiences impact on the relationship between the orientations, resources and goals they bring to the classroom and on their aims in certain classroom situations. In addition, some belief researchers argue that beliefs are situated; therefore, their content can vary across contexts (Lerman, 2002; Mansour, 2009). Furthermore, Cobb and Yacknel (1996) suggest that when teachers engage in classroom practice, their experiences influence how they make sense of all aspects of their profession, and the dynamic interplay between these emerging beliefs and actions constructs the classroom situation which the students and the teacher experience. This approach highlights the importance of interpreting the belief-practice relationship within its broader social context (Skott, 2015). This perspective suggests that researchers' 'task is not to get access to reified mental constructs in the form of beliefs but to disentangle patterns in the teacher's reengagement in other past and present practices in the view of the ones that unfold at the instant' (ibid, p.24).

More recently researchers refer to the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices as complex (Basturkmen, 2012; Buehl & Beck, 2015). Acknowledging this complexity means not only seeing the belief-practice relationship as a bidirectional one, but also accepting that 'the strength of this relationship may vary across individuals and contexts as well as the types of beliefs and practices being assessed' (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 70). In order to shed light on this complex relationship a research agenda should be developed which investigates potential factors, such as 'context, teacher experience and planning' in relation to the relationship between beliefs and practice (Basturkmen, 2012, p. 282). Basturkmen's (2012) findings revealed the importance of context and constraints which 'appeared to mediate the relationship across situations' (ibid, p. 282). Li (2013), who also highlights the complex nature of beliefs, studied the relationship between a Chinese secondary school EFL teacher's beliefs and practices through video-recorded classroom interactions, interviews and video-based reflections (ibid). The study followed the principles of Conversation Analysis and focused on the participant's espoused beliefs, convergence between espoused beliefs and theories in use and the divergence between his espoused theories and theories in use, including the participant's insights into the topics (ibid). Based on the findings, it is difficult to say whether the teachers' espoused theories and classroom practices were consistent, because evidence for both consistency and inconsistency were found (ibid). Therefore, Li (2013, p. 188) concludes that instead of 'looking at the extent to which a belief converges with, or diverges from, a stated practice' we need to understand the complex



relationship between beliefs and practice. Li's findings (2013, p. 186) also suggest that 'teachers' theories are conceptualised in a given environment and contextualised by this environment'. The development of the teacher's espoused theories was influenced by both the macro contexts (his students' needs, his experience, and the status of English and the function of English in his understanding) and the micro-context (his interaction with the students) of teaching (ibid). The study also reveals that teachers' decision making is complex and influenced by several factors, such as 'cultural knowledge, self-perceived teacher image and educational priorities' (ibid, p. 188).

The above studies have immediate relevance to the present study. They highlight both the complex and context-sensitive relationship between beliefs and practice, which can only be explored by using research methods which provide information about the influence of contextual factors, lesson planning and teachers' professional/personal experiences.

#### 3.2.4 Factors influencing the enactment of teacher beliefs

The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices can be influenced by several factors (Basturkmen, 2012; Buehl & Beck, 2015; Li, 2013). Figure 1 (drawing on a large body of empirical studies from outside the field of language education) illustrates the 'system of external supports and hindrances' which can impact on this relationship (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p.74).

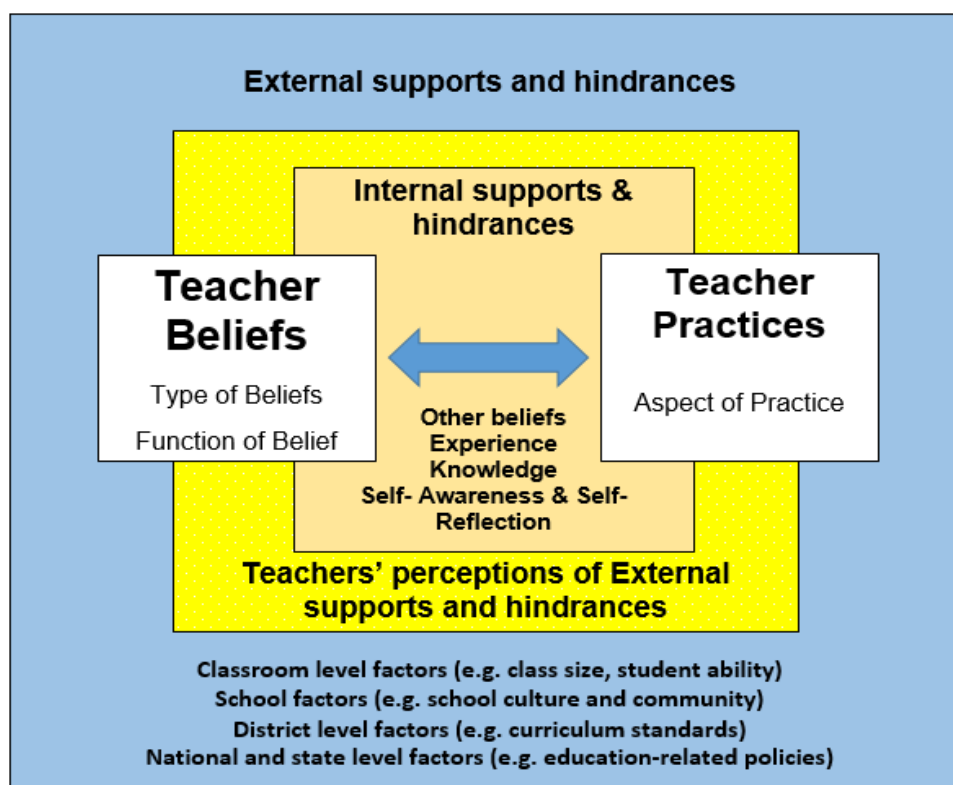


Figure 1: Buehl and Beck (2015) adapted: Relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in a system of internal and external supports and hindrances

#### 3.2.4.1 Internal supports and hindrances

According to Buehl and Beck's model (2015) internal supports and hindrances include teachers' *other beliefs*, *experience*, *knowledge*, and *self-awareness and self-reflection*. There are several studies in the general education and ELT literature which provide evidence for the existence of the above internal supports or hindrances.

Phipps and Borg (2009) suggest, teachers appear to hold various *beliefs* at the same time, which are in complex interaction with one another. For instance, teachers might hold contradictory beliefs which can lead to tensions between their beliefs and practices. In their study the teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices were not always consistent, because the teachers seemed to prioritise the enactment of deeper beliefs which were related to classroom management (ibid). The teachers referred to these beliefs as maintaining the 'order, control and flow of the lesson' (ibid, p. 387). Therefore, beliefs about classroom management factors seemed to hinder the enactment of the teachers' grammar teaching beliefs in their classroom practices.

It has been suggested that teachers' capability and self-efficacy beliefs can also account for inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015). In addition, teachers' 'sense of responsibility for students' learning can also impact on the

implementation of their beliefs in their practices (ibid, 2015, p. 75). For instance, the teacher studied by Li (2013) seemed to believe in the importance of enhancing communicative competence. However, his classroom discourse appeared to suggest that instead of giving students the opportunity to speak, he continuously interrupted his students (ibid). When his own insights were gained on this particular scene of the lesson, it turned out that, to the teacher, enhancing communicative competence meant that students all had to get the opportunity to speak during his lessons (ibid). He said that he asked questions in order to involve more and more students in the conversation, even if they could only speak for a very short time (ibid). Hence, what might have been seen as divergence from his stated beliefs turned out to be the influence of his sense of responsibility for involving all of his students in the speaking practice exercise.

Another belief which can support or hinder teachers' implementation of beliefs is teachers' beliefs about their micro contexts (Buehl & Beck, 2015). For example, teachers' beliefs about their students' ability to learn, combined with strong teacher self-efficacy beliefs, can result in the enactment of beliefs about instruction in teachers' practices (Hertzog, 2011). In Hertzog (2011) the teacher held negative views about her students' home culture and first language, but strongly believed that her students were capable of learning. Therefore, she enacted her beliefs about successful instruction in her practice, despite her negative views about the students' cultural background.

*Knowledge* also seems to be an influential internal factor in the implementation of teachers' beliefs in their practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Some studies (e.g. Rushton et al., 2011) found some evidence that pre-service or in-service teachers' beliefs and practices showed inconsistencies because of the teachers' lack of necessary amount of subject matter knowledge (ibid). I would like to argue that if teachers' knowledge can influence the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which is part of teachers' knowledge base, can also act as an influential factor to the enactment of beliefs (Andrews, 2007; Hashweh, 2005). This will be discussed in detail in the section on GPCK (section 3.3.1.1).

Other internal factors which can impact on the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices are teachers' *self-awareness and self-reflection* (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Farrell (2005), who found inconsistencies between his participants' beliefs and practices, noted that the teachers in the study had not developed an awareness of their beliefs before the study. This could have been the reason why inconsistencies between their stated beliefs and practices were found (ibid). Therefore, Phipps and Borg (2009) suggest that if

teachers talk about their beliefs and practices, incongruences can be discussed, which might enable teachers to change their practices accordingly.

#### 3.2.4.2 External supports and hindrances

Previous research shows that there are also external supports and hindrances which seem to influence whether teachers enact their beliefs in their practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015). These are '*classroom-context factors, school-context factors and national-, state- and district-level factors*' (ibid, p. 76-78). *Classroom-context factors*, such as students' abilities and attitudes (e.g. Bullock, 2010), classroom management (e.g. Richards & Pennington, 1998) and class size (e.g. Akbulut, 2007) could influence the enactment of teachers' beliefs regardless of their teaching experience (ibid). *School factors*, for instance, administration, colleagues, parental support and the available teaching facilities (e.g. Akbulut, 2007) can also impact on the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices (ibid). Finally, *national-, state- and district-level factors* can also influence the implementation of teachers' beliefs in their practices. The teachers in Richards and Pennington (1998) expressed beliefs about communicative teaching methods; however, when their stated beliefs were in conflict with the teaching traditions of Hong-Kong, they decided to follow their countries' teaching traditions in their practices. Hos and Kekec (2014) found that the teachers in their study, despite their stated beliefs about CLT, chose to use the Grammar Translation method because they believed that their students expected them to teach grammar explicitly, as developing a sound knowledge of grammar was one of the students' exam requirements. This shows how the backwash effect of exams can impact on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. Likewise, the teachers in Farell and Kun's study (2008) were under national pressure to correct the Singlish features of their students' English speech. However, in this case national factors did not hinder the enactment of the teachers' beliefs because their beliefs about error correction must have been held stronger than their beliefs about complying with national expectations.

Though according to both Buehl and Beck's model and Borg's framework (2006), contextual factors appear to be external to the teachers, it has been suggested that teachers' perceptions of these factors seem to be more determinant in the enactment of their beliefs (Bullock, 2010). In Sanchez's model (2010) this is referred to as *Teacher Constructed Context*, which filters the enactment of cognitions in classroom practices. Sanchez and Borg (2014, p. 52) also argue that context is internal to the teachers. They provide evidence that teachers' different perceptions of the same instructional contexts can impact on their grammar teaching practices (ibid). For instance, whereas one of the

participants in their study (Emma) believed that students at her school had low motivation and difficulties with understanding grammar, the other participant (Sophia) felt that these students were inspired by intellectual challenges and had developed a strong L1 awareness (ibid). Therefore, while Emma used the students' L1 in the classroom to make sure that they understood her grammar explanations, Sophia used the students' L1 to encourage L1-L2 comparisons and thus provide intellectually challenging exercises to her learners. Incorporating the findings of these studies, Figure 1 shows a possible position of teacher constructed context in Buehl and Beck's model (2015). In the present study I acknowledge that in some cases teachers' perceptions of contextual factors are more determinant, but also accept that contextual factors can have a direct impact on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices.

### 3.2.5 Summary

In this section the studies most relevant to the focus of my study in the field of teacher beliefs have been reviewed, mainly focusing on L2 English in-service teachers' beliefs. The purpose of this review was two-fold: to provide a theoretical base for my study by engaging critically with the literature and to identify areas which require further research.

Reviewing the literature made me aware that most of the existing literature focuses on in-service teachers' beliefs about a specific area of ELT (such as grammar teaching), on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and on the impact of in-service teacher training on teachers' beliefs. However, there does not seem to be any study to date which specifically focuses on the relationship between teachers' beliefs about their selection and use of grammar teaching techniques in their grammar teaching practices. Therefore, my first research question emerging from this section is the following:

**RQ: In what ways are the selection and use of teachers' grammar teaching techniques informed by their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching?**

Also, reviewing the literature revealed that most studies focused on how beliefs impact on in-service teachers' practices, but only a few studies reported findings related to the impact of practice on beliefs and conceptualised the relationship between beliefs and practice as reciprocal. Therefore, the second research question developed from my literature review is the following:

**RQ: How do teachers' grammar pedagogical practices impact on their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching?**

### **3.3 Grammar pedagogy in ELT**

Although grammar teaching has received a lot of attention to date, there are still several questions related to grammar pedagogy that teachers are uncertain about. According to Ellis (2006), teachers' concerns about grammar teaching are mostly related to eight key questions about grammar. (1) Teachers often disagree about whether they should teach grammar or simply support students' natural language acquisition. (2) Teachers seem to have doubts about what grammar they should teach. (3) The timing of grammar teaching is also often a matter of concern. This refers to whether learners need to acquire a certain degree of linguistic competence before they learn grammar. (4) There also seems to be a general disagreement about whether grammar should be taught over a short period of time (massed instruction) or over a longer one (distributed instruction). (5) Teachers also hold different views about whether different grammar structures should be taught separately, covering one each lesson or whether they should be taught in relation to one another. (6) Many teachers appear to question the value of explicit grammar knowledge. (7) Teachers often seem to articulate concerns about inductive grammar teaching. They often wonder about the most effective way of teaching grammar inductively for implicit grammar knowledge. (8) Finally, there are disagreements about whether grammar teaching should be integrated into communicative activities or taught separately.

Addressing teachers' concerns, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research suggests broad options for integrating grammar work into L2 teaching (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2006). According to Doughty and Williams (1998), there are three models for incorporating work on form and meaning to English language teaching. According to the first model, grammar can be taught through focusing on form, which refers to providing short explicit explanations (for formal knowledge) with occasional reference to meaning. The second model is the Presentation Practice Production (PPP) approach, which consists of three distinct steps: 1) explicit grammar presentation 2) controlled practice and 3) less-controlled practice. The third model is described as 'attention to form and meaning integrated at all times, with or without explicit instruction' (Doughty and Williams 1998, p. 250). Ellis (2006) also differentiates three options for integrating grammar with communicative activities: *focus-on-form*, *planned focus-on-form* and *incidental focus-on-form*. *Focus-on-form* refers to a way of grammar teaching where the sources of forms are communicative activities and the primary focus is on form with attention to meaning. This can be *planned*, meaning that the teacher might need to set up an activity to 'elicit

occasions for using a predetermined grammatical structure' (Ellis, 2006, p. 100); or *incidental*, which means impromptu focus on forms during communicative tasks.

Although second language acquisition (SLA) research has provided some insight into these concerns (e.g. Ellis, 2001, 2006), many issues about L2 grammar teaching still remain underexplored. It has been suggested that there is not any teaching method which can be universally applied in every teaching context (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). This resulted in the birth of postmethod, which acknowledges the context sensitivity of pedagogy (ibid). If we accept that pedagogy is context sensitive, seeking for final answers to questions like the ones above seems to be pointless, because the answers can be different in every teaching context. This might be the reason why teachers hold different views about these questions. Therefore, in order to be able to address teachers' concerns and eventually support them in developing effective teaching techniques for their contexts, the relationship between their cognitions and grammar teaching practices needs to be studied. Thus, instead of seeking categorical answers to questions related to grammar teaching, my aim is to explore the teachers' cognitions about grammar pedagogy as they relate to their classroom practices. Specifically, this study investigates the types of grammar teaching techniques that teachers use to make grammar content accessible to learners, without focusing on any particular grammar teaching model, method or approach in particular. Moreover, it intends to shed light on how teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques can influence their selection and use of such techniques; and how grammar teaching experiences can, in turn, redefine teachers' beliefs.

This section of my literature review is structured in the following way: The first sub-section discusses pedagogical techniques in English grammar teaching (3.3.1). The second sub-section (3.3.2) reviews well-documented pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching. After that, the third sub-section discusses context-based/appropriate pedagogies (3.3.3). The last section summarizes the main points of this section and introduces the research question related to this section (3.3.4).

### 3.3.1 Pedagogical techniques in English grammar teaching

Although grammar teaching is a well-researched area of ELT, teachers' pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching have hardly received any attention to date in the research-based literature (Sanchez & Borg, 2014). The aim of this section is to summarize the research to date about them, and explain how my study will enrich our knowledge of the choice and use of pedagogical techniques in English grammar

teaching. Sanchez and Borg (2014) refer to the knowledge of pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching as GPCK. In order to clarify what I mean by GPCK in the present study, the nature of GPCK is discussed in relation to teachers' grammar explanations with a reference to the relationship between GPCK and other types of teacher knowledge (3.3.1.1). Whereas understanding its relationship to knowledge provides a theoretical base for understanding the position of this concept in teachers' knowledge base, the relationship between GPCK and grammar teaching practices provides information about the manifestation of this type of teacher knowledge in teachers' classroom practices.

#### 3.3.1.1 GPCK and grammar explanations

As mentioned in section 3.2.3.4, I discuss GPCK in the present study because it is an internal factor which can hinder or support the implementation of teachers' beliefs in their practices. Only a few studies have focused on the concept of Grammar-Related Pedagogical Content knowledge (e.g. Sanchez & Borg, 2014). However, in some studies Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) has been discussed more broadly (e.g. Hashweh, 2005; Shulman, 1986). Shulman (1986, 1987) and Hashweh (2005) describe PCK as a type of knowledge within teachers' knowledge base, which is distinct from other types of teacher knowledge (knowledge of content, context, learners, curriculum, resources and pedagogy). In addition, Hashweh (2005) suggests that PCK informs and is informed by other types of teacher knowledge, such as knowledge of content, context, learners, curriculum, resources and pedagogy. Andrews (2007) also acknowledges that PCK interacts with other types of teacher knowledge; however, according to his categorization, other types of teacher knowledge are all parts of teachers' PCK. In this study I acknowledge the interaction between PCK/GPCK and other types of teacher knowledge; however, I consider PCK/GPCK distinct from other types of teacher knowledge.

As far as I am aware, there are two studies which focused on English teachers' grammar teaching techniques and their GPCK. Both of these studies' main focus was GPCK; therefore, their perspective on the topic was quite different from the focus of my study. However, they both provide a definition of PCK in the context of English grammar teaching, and they shed some light on what grammar teaching tools teachers use and what their perceptions of using certain strategies are.

Johnston and Goettsch (2000) investigated the knowledge base of four experienced language teachers in the USA through analysing their grammar explanations. They focused on the teachers' content knowledge, PCK and knowledge of learners. These



constructs were discussed separately, but the complex relationship between them was acknowledged in the study. To them, PCK is 'the application of knowledge about language - for example, how to explain grammar points to students' (ibid, p. 440). They found that 'the way experienced teachers give explanations of grammar points in class [...] is pedagogical content knowledge par excellence' (ibid, p. 449). Their findings show that rule explanations were not prominent features of the participants' grammar teaching. The teachers' grammar pedagogy was characterised by a high level of student involvement. For example, this took the form of encouraging student examples, questions and student-initiated discussions. This was based on a general belief in the beneficial effect of student involvement on students' understanding of how the language works. Regarding the use of metalanguage, the study provided contradictory results. Whereas two teachers promoted the use of metalanguage in grammar teaching (especially at lower levels), the other two (who taught higher levels) were not supportive of it. This shows that questions like how much metalanguage should be used in class seem to be highly context-dependent.

Another study that sheds light on experienced teachers' PCK in relation to grammar teaching is Sanchez and Borg (2014). They first refer to this type of PCK as GPCK. They define GPCK as a 'knowledge of the specific instructional techniques (e.g., metaphors, analogies, examples, etc.) which [teachers] use to explain grammar content in order to make it accessible to the learner' (ibid, p.46). They studied two experienced secondary school EFL teachers' grammar explanations and the influence of cognitive and contextual factors on their grammar teaching. Their results show that, with reference to cognitive influences, the teachers' selection of grammar explanations was informed by broader pedagogical concerns:

- (a) *Being economical* - using strategies which are efficient, time-wise (e.g., translating)
- (b) *Motivating learners* - using strategies which create in learners a willingness to engage with grammar (e.g., personalizing examples)
- (c) *Making grammar concrete* – using strategies which turn abstract concepts into tangible material (e.g., metaphors)
- (d) *Promoting reflection* – using strategies which give learners opportunities to reflect on what they have learnt (e.g., eliciting and summarizing content previously covered)
- (e) *Encouraging participation* – using strategies which encourage learners to contribute actively to grammar work (e.g., inviting students to provide their own examples)
- (f) *Reinforcing learning* – using strategies which enhance the salience of grammar information (e.g. teacher repetition)
- (g) *Gaining and sustaining attention* – using strategies which attract students' attention and keep them focused (e.g., eliciting content and examples)

- (h) *Monitoring understanding* – using strategies which provide the teacher with information about learners' level of understanding (e.g., inviting learners to translate the teachers' explanations and examples)
- (i) *Providing support for weaker students* – using strategies which enable weaker students to understand grammar (e.g., explaining in the students' L1) (ibid, p. 51-52)

These all are internal factors which can influence the teachers' choice and use of pedagogical techniques. The variety of pedagogical concerns above shows the complexity of teachers' decision making. The authors highlight that often not only one but several concerns can simultaneously motivate teachers to choose a certain technique. In addition, their findings show that sometimes the same concern can trigger the use of different instructional strategies. The study also provides evidence of contextual factors which can impact on the teachers' pedagogical decision making. The findings revealed that several contextual factors impacted on the teachers' GPCK. As mentioned in 3.2.4.2, Sanchez and Borg (2014) provides evidence that these contextual factors are not always external to the teacher. They argue that often not the contextual factors themselves, but the teachers' perceptions of these factors can influence their practices. For instance, the two teachers in the study agreed that because their classes were after lunch their learners were chatty and easy to distract and were not organised. However, while one of the teachers perceived the students as having low motivation and difficulties with understanding grammar, the other highlighted the students' excellent L1 knowledge and preference for intellectually challenging tasks. These differing perceptions of their learners resulted in teachers using the same pedagogical technique (e.g. students' L1) in different ways. One of the teachers provided grammar explanations on the students' L1 to make grammar learning less challenging. However, the other encouraged her students to compare English to their L1 and thus made grammar activities more intellectually challenging.

#### 3.3.1.2 The definition of GPCK in the present study

Reviewing the literature on the nature of GPCK provided not only valuable information about this construct, but also helped me define how I view GPCK in the present study. The following definition incorporates the abovementioned definitions and conceptualizations of PCK and GPCK (Hashweh, 2005; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Sanchez & Borg, 2014; Shulman, 1987), and positions the concepts in English teachers' knowledge base. It also describes what I mean by the concept in relation to English teachers' grammar explanations in their grammar teaching practices.

*GPCK is a topic-specific element of English teachers' PCK. It informs and is informed by other types of teacher knowledge within English teachers' knowledge base, but it is distinct from them. It refers to the knowledge of certain grammar teaching techniques (e.g. rule explanations, examples, concept questions) which English teachers draw on when they provide grammar explanations in order to make grammar content accessible to their learners.*

### 3.3.2 Grammar teaching techniques in the ELT literature

Teachers' GPCK is manifested in their practices through their use of pedagogical techniques for grammar teaching. Several pedagogical techniques for English grammar teaching have been documented in the ELT literature. In this section, first I will explain what I mean by grammar teaching technique in the present study, then discuss grammar teaching techniques described by practical teacher handbooks and, finally, review those discussed in the research literature.

#### 3.3.2.1 The definition of GTT in the present study

The term technique is often discussed in relation to the terms method and approach in the language teaching literature. It has been suggested that 'techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach' (Anthony, 1963, p. 63). This suggests that approach refers to a set of assumptions about language teaching and method to a coherent plan for teaching language following the philosophy described by the approach. Technique 'is implementational - that which actually takes place in the classroom. A particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective' (ibid, p. 65). Richard and Rodgers (2014) conceptualise techniques as part of the procedure phase of methods. To them, methods consist of three elements: approach (philosophy of the method), design (a detailed plan for how the approach should be used for language teaching) and procedure ('classroom techniques, practices, and behaviours observed when the method is used') (ibid, p. 36). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) highlight that, although within one method there is coherence between the philosophy of a method and techniques used for implementing, that does not suggest that one technique can only be used with one method. However, when a technique is used with different methods, it might look different in practice. A definition of technique from the field of medical sciences provides further insights. Hinsch et al. (2014, p. 485) argue that techniques have two important characteristics: 1) 'they are consciously used to achieve a certain goal or purpose' and 2) they are 'non-trivial, skilful activities'. A technique can be repeated in the same way multiple times and they need to be 'describable and

observable for them to be learnable' (ibid, p. 485). They suggest that objects can also be used when techniques are implemented. In the present study I use the term *grammar teaching technique* or *tool* (technique and tool will be used interchangeably to avoid lexical repetition) to refer to teachers' explicit ways of making grammar content accessible to their learners without referring to any particular method or approach.

It has been suggested that within explicit grammar instruction there are two options (Ellis, 2001). *Direct explicit instruction* refers to 'oral or written explanations of grammatical phenomena. They can stand by themselves or can be accompanied by exercises in which learners attempt to apply the rule they have learned' (ibid, p. 48). *Indirect explicit instruction* means giving students '*consciousness-raising tasks* in which they analyse data illustrating the workings of a specific grammatical rule' (ibid, p. 48 emphasis in original). In the present study all grammar teaching techniques will be discussed, regardless of which type of instruction they represent.

### 3.3.2.2 Grammar teaching techniques recommended by practical handbooks

Grammar teaching techniques in practical handbooks are worth discussing because, as research evidence suggests, teachers are more familiar with practical handbooks than with the research-based literature, such as academic books or journals (Borg, 2010). Furthermore, the aim of these handbooks is to enhance teachers' knowledge of effective language teaching strategies; therefore, they might potentially impact on teachers' GPCK and beliefs about grammar teaching techniques. However, it is worth noting that many of these techniques are not based on research evidence, but rather on recommendations based on the authors' knowledge and experience.

#### *Deductive grammar teaching techniques*

Giving *rule explanations* is one of the most often mentioned deductive grammar teaching tools in practical handbooks (e.g. Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 1999). Thornbury (1999) and Hedge (2000) discuss the *use of metalanguage* in relation to rule explanations. They both advice considering whether using metalanguage supports learners' understanding of a language point before teachers decide to use it. It has also been pointed out that learners with different learning styles or levels of English might respond differently to the use of metalanguage (Hedge, 2000; Schellekens, 2007). Scrivener (2011) argues that rule explanations should be planned carefully and kept as concise as possible. In addition, Thornbury (1999) mentions that the use of *contrasting language forms* (*minimal grammar pairs*) can make grammar explanations easier to comprehend for learners.

Another deductive grammar teaching technique mainly used by teachers who speak other languages than English is *translation* from/to the students' first language (L1) to/from the target language. Thornbury (1999) and Hedge (2000) consider translation an effective way of helping the students understand the meaning of certain language points. However, Thornbury (1999) argues that in terms of efficacy, this strategy has two downsides: 1) It requires minimal mental effort from learners; therefore, its 'gains will be short-lived' (ibid, p. 40). 2) Using the students' L1 in the classroom results in less exposure to the target language. According to Thornbury (1999), translation can only be an effective pedagogical technique for grammar teaching in monolingual classes, and the teacher should be able to speak the students' L1 fluently. Schellekens (2007) in the context of ESOL mentions that students' knowledge of their L1 can be used without translating from one language to another. When teaching word order, she recommends asking students to make comparisons between word order in their L1 and English using colour coding and English sentence chunks. Making comparisons between the grammars of different languages allows teachers to make use of their learners' L1 knowledge even if they do not speak their students' L1.

#### *Inductive grammar teaching techniques*

The aim of inductive grammar teaching is to provide students target language *examples*, so they can work out grammar rules (Thornbury, 1999). Thornbury (1999) and Scrivener (2011) recommend *teaching grammar through actions* as an inductive grammar teaching technique at lower levels. This refers to giving instructions to students (*gestures and demonstrations* should be used to help understanding) and making sure that they do what the instruction says. This technique is based on the Total Physical Response (TPR) method, which states that students need to be both physically and mentally engaged to be able to learn effectively (Scrivener, 2011).

Additionally, Scrivener (2011) and Thornbury (1999) suggest using *generative situations* for grammar teaching purposes. Generative situations are teacher created contexts which require the use of the grammar point that the teacher would like to teach. To make sure that students know the language that they need to use in context teachers can *elicit* examples from them before the task. Thornbury (1999) argues that this is a very effective grammar teaching technique; however, it requires a lot of teacher preparation.

*Concept or context questions* can also be used for teaching grammar inductively (Scrivener, 2011). Concept questions are used to shed light on the meaning of a language point. Context questions are aimed to make students aware of the context

where a grammar point is normally used. Also, if teachers would like students to focus on the form of the grammar point, they can ask *form-related questions*.

*Using visual aids*, such as *realia* for grammar teaching purposes, is also an inductive strategy recommended by practical handbooks (e.g. Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 1999). Using *realia* refers to the use of real objects in the classroom for grammar teaching purposes, such as eliciting examples of a target language structure (Thornbury, 1999). However, Thornbury (1999) explains that, even if it can be an effective way of attracting students' attention, it can be used only for teaching a limited range of grammar structures. Moreover, teachers might not be able or willing to carry objects around.

Finally, Thornbury (1999) suggests that *using concordance data* can also be used for making grammar content accessible for learners. However, the downside of this technique is that it can take a lot of time as concordance lines can be confusing for students.

#### *Other grammar teaching techniques*

There are grammar teaching tools which can be aligned with both inductive and deductive grammar teaching approaches, depending on the teacher's way of using them.

*Error correction* is a frequently used grammar teaching technique; therefore, it is not surprising that it has been discussed by practical handbooks (e.g. Schellekens, 2007; Scrivener, 2011). Thornbury (1999) differentiates two types of error correction: 1) Student errors can be used for making exercises that teach students a language point. 2) Reformulation of students' incorrect language use into correct forms can also be used for teaching grammar points. Scrivener (2011) describes additional techniques for correcting errors (e.g. finger correction) and provides an overview of factors that teachers could consider when deciding whether to correct certain errors.

*Texts* can also be used for grammar teaching purposes (Hedge, 2000). Thornbury (1999) suggests that using texts for teaching grammar structures is an effective way of showing students the context sensitive nature of language. He highlights the difference between co-text and context. In order to create a context for a grammar structure both 'the roles and relationships of the speakers and the mode of communication' in the given situation must be considered (ibid, p. 70). Creating a co-text only involves surrounding the given language point with text which gives meaning to it. Thornbury (1999) recommends the following text types for grammar teaching purposes: scripted dialogues, authentic texts, students' written language, dictogloss and genres. However, he admits that using texts

for grammar teaching purposes can be problematic as finding a text which is equally interesting for every learner is difficult.

### 3.3.2.3 Grammar teaching techniques in the research literature

Studies on the cognitions of in-service teachers identified a variety of strategies for making grammar content accessible to learners (Sanchez & Borg, 2014). The findings of Borg's study (1998) revealed that the experienced teacher from Malta in the study used the analysis of learners' errors, the learners' L1, elicitation and simplified grammar rules for grammar teaching purposes. The teachers in Borg (1999) used metalanguage when providing grammar explanations. Both participants highlighted that using metalanguage promoted students' grammar learning outside class. One of them also noted that the use of metalanguage 'facilitates diagnostic work by allowing students to state which areas of language they want/need to work on' (ibid, p. 110). Fotos (2002) suggests that students' knowledge about L2 grammar can be enhanced through using structure-based interactive tasks. Celce-Murcia (2002, 2007) promotes presenting grammar content in context (using extracts of spoken or written discourse) and encouraging students to analyse these extracts collaboratively and try to understand how structures are used. Pahissa and Tragant (2009) reported that their experienced EFL teacher participants from Spain used L1-L2 comparisons, elicitation, metaphors, simplified grammar rules, practical grammar learning tips, translation, structural analysis of language points and word association for teaching grammar to their learners. Nishimuro and Borg (2013) in the context of Japanese EFL found that their participants mainly taught grammar through explicit grammar explanations, including translations to the students' L1. The teachers also used the analysis of decontextualized sentences for teaching grammar. One of the teachers made comparisons between target language structures to highlight the differences in meaning. Another teacher used a series of closed questions, which functioned as a teacher-led discovery grammar learning process. Also, Sanchez and Borg (2014) in an Argentinian secondary school context found that their participants used translation, L1-L2 comparisons, exemplification, repetition, metaphors, analogies, images, visual support (e.g. for summarizing), elicitation, conceptual grouping as pedagogical techniques for grammar teaching.

The findings of research studies above reveal that there are grammar teaching techniques that teachers use regularly, but which cannot be found in practical grammar teaching handbooks. Also, some of the techniques described by practical handbooks (e.g., using concordance data) do not seem to feature in research studies. A possible reason for this could be a difference between the contexts that the authors of the above

mentioned practical handbooks imagined and those where research studies were conducted.

### 3.3.3 Appropriate/Context-based pedagogies

As the previous section highlighted, it often happens that grammar teaching techniques described by popular teaching handbooks either do not feature at all or feature in a different way in teachers' classroom practices. My motivation for conducting this study and my interest in grammar teaching are related to this issue. In addition, as mentioned above, teachers' perceptions of the instructional context can have a significant impact on their beliefs and pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching (Sanchez & Borg, 2014); therefore, contextual factors cannot be neglected in the present study.

The influential nature of instructional contexts on L2 teaching methodologies has been widely acknowledged as a result of the work of, for instance, researchers who problematized the term *method*. It has been argued that methods are based on interested knowledge; therefore, they represent the values of dominant social groups (Pennycook, 1989). It has also been suggested that following prescribed methods in English teaching practices cannot be effective, as the success of a certain teaching method is context dependent (Prabhu, 1990). The process of change in English language pedagogy started with the appearance of eclecticism (Akbari, 2008). This refers to using a mixture of teaching techniques, borrowed from different language teaching methods, in order to find the most effective way of teaching in a given context. The main issue with eclecticism was that it did not provide any theoretical guidance for teachers, and it still kept the term *method*, which led to conceptual issues (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). Moreover, Bax (2003) argues that the influence of Communicative Language Teaching resulted in a limited attention to the instructional context of teaching, which should be the most important part of the profession. Therefore, he introduced the Context Approach, which 'places context at the heart of the profession' (p. 278).

The emergence of eclecticism and the theories mentioned above resulted in the birth of the *postmethod* (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). The pedagogy of the postmethod is based on three main parameters, 1) 'particularity', 2) 'practicality' and 3) 'possibility' (pp. 170-175). The first parameter refers to the context sensitive nature of the postmethod. This means that not only the classroom context, but also the institutional and wider social context have to be taken into consideration in teaching practices. The second parameter refers to the importance of developing a relationship between theory and practice. Instead of



following already given theories, teachers should develop their own theories based on their classroom experiences. Finally, according to the third parameter, which focuses on 'language ideology and learner identity', the social, political and cultural contexts that impact on learners' way of thinking should also impact on the teaching methodology (pp. 174-75). Overall, the postmethod highlights the importance of considering the context of teaching and teachers' active role in forming theories about English language teaching based on their teaching practices.

Research in different teaching contexts has provided evidence that English language pedagogy is context-sensitive; therefore, what works well in one context might not work in another. Le Ha (2004, p. 53) studied the practices of two in-service EFL teachers' practices in the context of Vietnam, in order to find out whether their teaching practices 'reflected ... 'backward' and 'didactic' teaching' compared to Western teaching traditions. She found that Vietnamese teachers' roles include being a 'moral guide' for their students, which might be interpreted negatively according to Western models of teaching. However, in the context of Vietnam, where the students expect their teachers to act as a moral guide, this approach to teaching does not result in student alienation or imposing knowledge on learners. Therefore, her findings provide evidence that teaching methods which do not work well in one cultural context can work in a different one. This suggests that teaching methods are context dependent and methods which are not valued by dominant social groups should not be considered backward. Another example of the context-sensitivity of EFL teaching is provided by Kuchah and Smith (2011). In this study Kuchah's experiences as an EFL educator in Cameroon were discussed. His experience showed that due to contextual factors which made EFL teaching extremely challenging (e.g. 235 students in one class, lack of textbooks, extreme heat) the only way of effective teaching was if the teacher adopted teaching strategies which took into consideration the instructional context. When Kuchah tried to use traditional teaching methods (such as teaching grammar and vocabulary explicitly to the learner) without taking into consideration contextual factors the students acquired sentences which were rich in academic expressions, but did not sound natural in everyday communication. However, when he adopted strategies which reflected the cultural traditions and everyday lives of students in Cameroon (e.g. discussing the origin of his and his students' names), the learners became more engaged in the learning process and the teacher felt a sense of connection with his students. These findings provide further evidence that the teaching context has to be considered if teachers would like to achieve their desired learning outcomes.

The studies mentioned above provide evidence for the importance of contextual factors in ELT. In order to shed light on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices exploring how contextual factors and teachers' perceptions of such factors influence their grammar teaching beliefs and practices seems to be relevant.

### 3.3.4 Summary

In this section grammar pedagogy in ELT was discussed by focusing on 1) teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching tools and 2) on context-based/appropriate methodologies.

The aim of the section was to review the fields' knowledge about teachers' cognitions and practices in relation to grammar teaching, and highlight the gap in the literature: investigation of the relationship between teachers' grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices from a belief perspective.

After looking at the different types grammar teaching tools documented both in practical teaching handbooks and in the research-based literature and considering the notion of context appropriate methodologies, a third research question emerged:

**RQ: What pedagogical techniques do teachers use to make grammar content accessible to their learners in the context of the present study?**

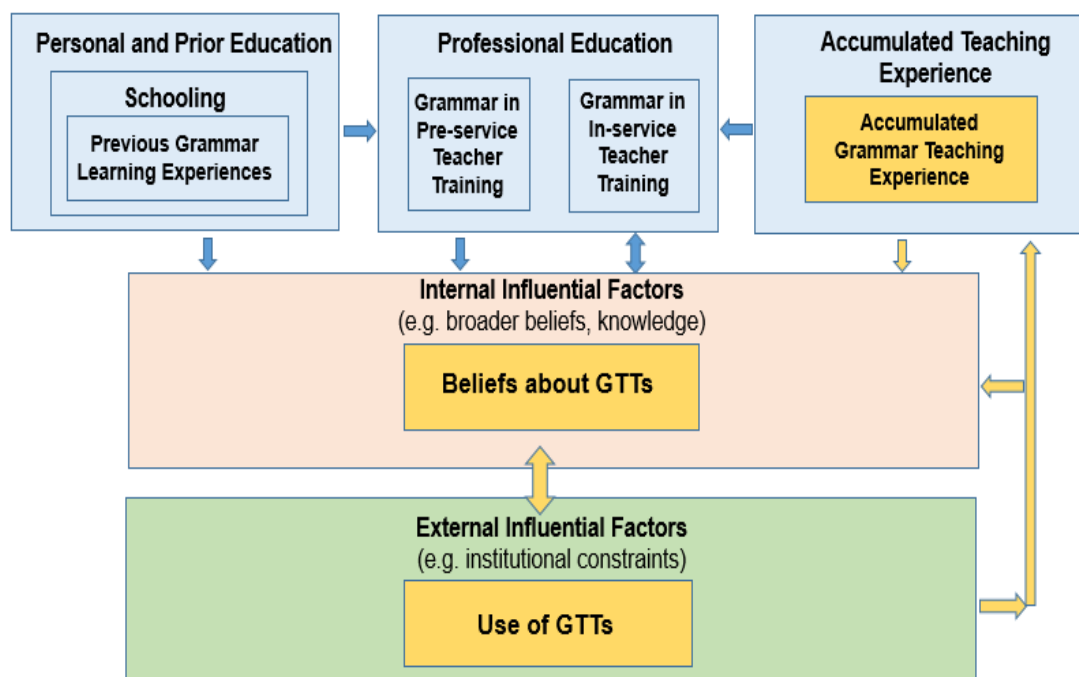
## 3.4 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to critically engage with the literature and highlight gaps which I am planning to address by conducting the present study. Reviewing the literature also helped me to position my study in it. The framework below (Figure 2) shows how I conceptualize teacher cognition in grammar teaching with a focus on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and use of pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching. The first layer of the diagram (in blue) shows the different types of experiences that inform cognitions, such as the teachers' beliefs about GTTs (adapted from Borg, 2006; Sanchez, 2010). The second layer (in pink) is teachers' beliefs about GTTs and other cognitions, which I view as internal influences to the belief-practice relationship (informed by Buehl & Beck, 2015). The third layer (in green) is teachers' use of GTTs and external influential factors to the belief-practice relationship (informed by Buehl & Beck, 2015). The highlighted elements (in yellow) in the framework are the main foci of my study, which will be explored by seeking answers to the following three main research questions:

**RQ1: What pedagogical techniques do the teachers use to make grammar content accessible to their learners?**

**RQ2: In what ways are the selection and use of these techniques informed by the teachers' beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching? What external or internal factors hinder or support the enactment of beliefs in practice?**

**RQ3: How do teachers' pedagogical practices inform their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching? What external and internal factors support or hinder the development of beliefs through practice?**



*Figure 2: Sanchez's (2010) & Buehl & Beck's (2015) models adapted: Grammar teaching from a beliefs perspective*

## Chapter IV. Research Methodology

The aim of this chapter is to provide a clear description of how I conducted the present study. Therefore, section 4.1 describes my ontological and epistemological stances, section 4.2 describes my research design, section 4.3 provides information about the research tradition that I followed, section 4.4 describes the methods of data collection that I used, section 4.5 describes the participants, section 4.6 describes how I analysed the data, section 4.7 explains how I accounted for authenticity and trustworthiness, section 4.8 will explain what kind of ethical issues were considered and addressed in the present study and section 4.9 will provide a conclusion for this chapter.

### 4.1 Ontological and epistemological stances

My ontological stance is represented the most accurately by *constructionism*. Although some authors (e.g. Ormston et al, 2014) use the term to describe an epistemological position, in this study it refers to an ontological position, which is that social reality is an ever-changing social construction, created by social actors (Bryman, 2012). According to the constructionist perspective, the researchers' stance is just one version of reality and it cannot be considered definitive (ibid). In this study my aim was to shed light on how the participants constructed their own realities, which I further interpreted. Therefore, everybody involved in this study took part in creating a picture of the teachers' social reality.

Regarding epistemological questions, my views are the closest to the theories of *interpretivism*. According to interpretivists, knowledge can only be constructed by investigating the social realities of people being studied (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, researchers should focus on understanding the meanings participants attach to the phenomena and their interpretations of them. Constructing knowledge requires a continuous interaction between the researcher, the participants and their social realities (Creswell, 2013). Researchers and participants impact on each other's social realities, which also affects the research project. In the present study the teachers constructed interpretations of the relationship between their beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices by engaging in interaction with me (e.g. via stimulated-recall interviews, scenario-based interviews). My aim was to gain their perspectives and interpretations in order to further interpret them. I am aware that my perceptions, values and beliefs (unintentionally) impacted on the way I interpreted the data.

After reviewing my ontological and epistemological orientations it seemed logical to choose a qualitative research design, which I am going to describe in the next sections.

## **4.2 Research design: Qualitative**

Providing a definition of qualitative research is difficult, as this term 'crosscuts disciplines, fields and subject matters' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 2). In this section my aim is to explain why I selected a qualitative paradigm and how I define qualitative research in relation to the present study (section 4.2.1). In addition, it describes the features (4.2.2) and functions (4.2.3) of qualitative methodology in relation to the present study.

### **4.2.1 Definition and rationale**

Understanding the relationship between my participants' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices required an exploratory, interpretative approach, which is often mentioned in definitions of qualitative research (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It has been suggested that 'researchers adopting a qualitative perspective are more concerned to understand individuals' perceptions of the world' than to provide statistical representations of phenomena (Bell, 2005, pp 7-8). The aims of this study were aligned with this definition of qualitative research, as I was interested in my participants' perceptions of the phenomena. In order to provide a better understanding of the phenomena the participants were studied in their natural contexts, which is also a characteristic of qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In addition, qualitative research is characterised by the use of multiple data sources which generate rich data about the phenomena studied (ibid). In the present study I used different data collection methods (e.g. different types of interviews, classroom observations, document analysis) to generate rich data about the teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching techniques and their beliefs about them.

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) provide a generic definition, which summarizes the basic features of qualitative research. Their definition describes how qualitative research is conceptualised in the present study.

Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretative, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them (ibid, p. 3).

Therefore, this study is qualitative because it aims to shed more light on the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices by studying their interpretations of the phenomena in their natural context of occurrence. In order to make sense of these phenomena I used a series of data collection strategies: background interviews, scenario-based interviews, lesson observations and stimulated-recall interviews.

#### 4.2.2 The characteristics of qualitative methodology

The characteristics of the methodology adopted in the present study are aligned with my qualitative research design. The sections below provide a detailed description of the nature of all aspects of the methodology used in this study.

##### 4.2.2.1 *Inductive* research from an *emic* perspective

In the present study I conducted *inductive* research, which means that my aim was to generate theories about the phenomena studied (Bryman, 2012). These phenomena were explored from an *emic* perspective, meaning that I adopted an insider's perspective (Watson-Gegeo, 1988, cited in Burns, 1999). The semi-structured background interviews enabled me to explore the participants' educational and professional backgrounds. Then, my aim was to establish close contact with the participants by studying them for an extended period of time (9 months) in their real-life contexts and by being in regular face-to-face contact with them during classroom observations, scenario-based interviews, and stimulated-recall interviews. These data collection methods provided rich data about the topic of the study and helped me explore the meanings that the participants brought to it. The purpose of the study was to provide a better understanding of the phenomena studied, therefore I did not judge the teachers' interpretations, but further interpreted them (Sanchez, 2010).

##### 4.2.2.2 Features and methods of data collection

In this study both *naturally occurring data* (classroom observations, document analysis) and *generated data* (different types of interviews) were collected to provide a better understanding of the phenomena (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008) (see 4.4). The former types refer to 'data that derives from situations that exist independently of the researcher's intervention' (ibid, p. 511). Generated data are 'data created specifically through the research process in an interaction between researcher and participant' (ibid, p. 54). Multiple, qualitative data collection instruments were used (e.g. observations, different types of interviews, document analysis) to explore the phenomena from multiple

perspectives and generate rich data (Creswell, 2013). In qualitative studies the researcher is a 'crucial 'measurement device'', therefore their 'background, values, identity and beliefs' influence the data collection process (Denscombe, 2010, p. 237). In the present study, because I collected all data myself, I became an important instrument in the process of data generation. Regarding the process of data collection I tried to be as flexible as possible (e.g. adjust the research timetable to the participants' timetable).

#### 4.2.2.3 Characteristics of data analysis

The present study followed the process of qualitative data analysis, recommended by Denscombe (2010) and Duff (2008). The units of data analysis were mainly words (e.g. in the form of interviews, observations, written feedback). Data analysis took place during the entire data collection process. For example, during classroom observations I wrote field notes which included my interpretation of certain classroom events. Each case was analysed separately, and then I made comparisons between them to produce a cross-case analysis. During the coding process I used codes which were related to the main themes described by my research questions. However, within these themes I let categories emerge during the data collection process rather than using pre-established categories from the literature (further discussed in section 4.6).

#### 4.2.2.4 Nature of findings and discussion

My aim was to provide a detailed account of the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices. In order to produce that, I provided detailed descriptions of how the participants interpreted the phenomena in the form of researcher descriptions and participant quotations in the findings sections (discussed in Chapter V, VI, VII and VIII). Then, in the discussion section I provided a detailed interpretation of the relationship between the meanings that the teachers assigned to the relationship between their grammar teaching practices and their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching (discussed in Chapter IX).

#### 4.2.3 The functions of qualitative research

It has been suggested that qualitative research have four main functions: *contextual*, *explanatory*, *evaluative* and *generative* (Snape & Spencer, 2003). I set out to fulfil two of these functions. First, the study has a *contextual* function, which 'is concerned with identifying *what* exists in the social world and the way it manifests itself' [emphasis in the original] (ibid, p. 27). In the present study this role was fulfilled by providing a detailed

analysis of the teachers' grammar teaching practices in their real-life context (both macro and micro contexts). Also, I explored contextual factors which can hinder or support the enactment of the teachers' beliefs in their practices. The second function that the present study fulfils is the *explanatory* one, which is interested in 'why phenomena occur and the forces and influences that drive their occurrence' [emphasis in the original] (ibid, p. 28). In the present study I explored the factors which could impact on the relationship between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their classroom practices. In addition, I studied the rationales behind the teachers' classroom decisions.

### 4.3 Research tradition: case study

Case study research has been defined in various ways according to different authors and disciplines (Simons, 2009). The aim of this section is to provide a definition, rationale and a description of case study in relation to the present study.

#### 4.3.1 Definition and rationale

The subject of a case study can be either a 'contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases)' (Creswell, 2013, p. 97). The aim of this study is to understand phenomena (cases), namely the relationship between individual English teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices. Each participant represented a case in the study; therefore, I explored multiple cases. Researchers emphasize that case study research involves a detailed, in-depth or intensive exploration of a case or cases in order to understand the phenomenon that they represent (e.g. Gerring, 2007; Simons, 2009). Furthermore, it has also been highlighted that the case or cases must be explored in their natural, real-life context of occurrence by using multiple perspectives, methods and information sources (e.g. Creswell, 2013; Yin, 2014). The phenomena studied were explored in their real-life contexts of occurrence, which were the teachers' grammar teaching practices. In order to understand these phenomena I studied the cases in-depth for an extended period of time (9 months). I used multiple sources of data (e.g. classroom observations, different types of interviews) in order to be able to explore the cases from multiple perspectives. These data sources generated a large amount of rich, qualitative data about the cases. Finally, by exploring the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching, I intended to enhance our knowledge about how similar phenomena, cases and contexts can be interpreted.



### 4.3.2 Type

I stated above that the present study follows a multiple case design, because each participant represents a case. Within each case there are 'embedded units of analysis'; therefore, this is an embedded multiple case study (Yin, 2014, p. 50). Figure 3 (based on Yin, 2014, p. 50) shows a possible model of the embedded case study design that the present study followed. This shows that in this case study the primary units of analysis were the teacher participants. Within each case beliefs about grammar teaching techniques (GTTs) and the teachers' grammar teaching practices were the embedded units of analysis. The participants were studied both in their macro contexts (ESOL instruction in the UK) and in their micro contexts (Tower Language School and their classes).

In the literature on case studies often differentiates three types: intrinsic, instrumental and collective (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008; Stake; 2005). Intrinsic case studies primarily focus on the case itself, their main aim being to understand the case. They do not aim to provide a better understanding of phenomena, which is often the reason why they are criticized by qualitative researchers (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). On the other hand, in instrumental case studies, the main focus is to provide a better understanding of the phenomena by studying a case in depth; therefore, the case's role is to support this process. A collective case study is an instrumental case study where multiple cases are studied in order to provide a better understanding of the phenomena being studied. The present study is a collective case study, because multiple cases are studied (3) in order to provide a better understanding of the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their classroom practices. Therefore, my main interests were the phenomena, not the cases themselves. I believe that studying these cases can facilitate our understanding of similar cases, phenomena and situations.

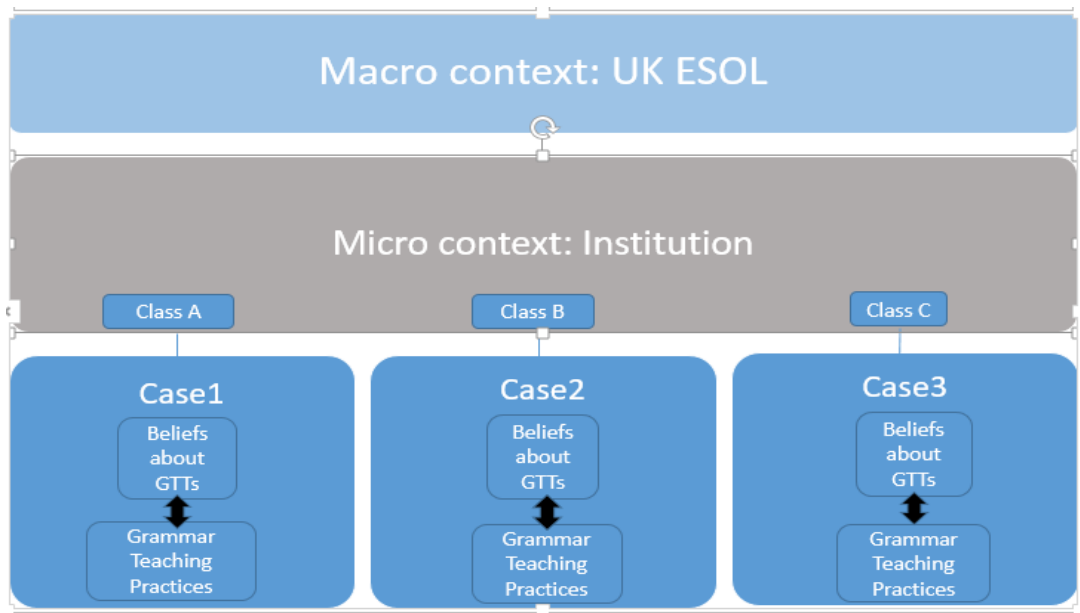


Figure 3: Embedded multiple case design in the present study

Finally, the participants of the present study all worked at the same macro and micro contexts (see Figure 3 above); therefore, this is a within-site case study (Creswell, 2013).

#### 4.4 Methods of data collection

##### 4.4.1 Features of data collection instruments

This section provides an overview of data collection instruments which were used to collect data about the relationships between teachers' educational and professional backgrounds, beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their selection and use of grammar teaching tools in their classroom contexts. In this study a *multiple method* data collection approach was used, which allowed me to collect a variety of data at different points in time (Olafson et al, 2015). As discussed in section 4.2.2.2 the data collection methods included ones which provided *naturally occurring* data and others which provided *generated* data. Collecting naturally occurring data is beneficial if the phenomenon studied involves a 'complex process or interaction, if aspects of it are less tangible or may escape awareness or if important elements are likely to be subconscious or instinctive' (Lewis & McNaughton Nicholls, 2014, p. 54). In Chapter III I described the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices as a complex one. Furthermore, teachers are often unaware of their beliefs; therefore, when they provide grammar explanations, they might not be conscious of the impact of their beliefs about GTTs on their grammar teaching practices (Borg, 2011). Therefore, in order to understand the relationship between beliefs and practice and shed light on elements which the participants might not be aware of, I

used non-participant lesson observations and document analysis to collect naturally occurring data about the phenomena studied. However, naturally occurring data are not always enough to understand a phenomenon. If the participants' perspectives are important or existing relationships are explored, generated data can help the researcher to provide a fuller picture of the topic studied. Generated data collection methods gave an opportunity to the participants to articulate their views about the research topic, which I further interpreted. In this study different types of interviews were used to gain the participants' insights and rationales.

#### 4.4.2 Stages of data collection

To conduct the present study different types of data were collected at three stages. Overall, five different data collection instruments were used: semi-structured background interviews, scenario-based interviews, non-participant classroom observations, stimulated-recall interviews and document analysis. The stages and methods of data collection are summarized in Table 1 and will be described in detail in the following sections.

*Table 1: Stages and methods of data collection*

Stages of data collection	Methods of data collection
Stage 1 Aim: to collect data about the teachers' professional and educational backgrounds and perceived contextual factors	<u>Semi structured background interview:</u> to establish the teachers' educational and professional profiles and stated beliefs about grammar teaching and grammar teaching techniques
	<u>Scenario-based interview:</u> to provide insights into the teachers' knowledge and application of grammar teaching techniques and shed some light on the relationship between their beliefs about those techniques and their grammar teaching practices. Also, to help the teachers get used to providing rationales.
Stage 2 Aim: 1) to gain naturally occurring data about the teachers' grammar teaching practices	<u>Classroom observations:</u> to study the teachers' grammar teaching practices
	<u>Stimulated-recall interviews:</u> to find out teachers' rationales for using certain grammar teaching techniques

2) to gain the teachers' rationale for using grammar teaching tools	
<b>Stage 3</b> Aim: to provide an opportunity for reflecting on the research process for both the researcher and the participants	<u>Semi-structured final interview:</u> to explore issues or questions that were not explored at previous stages and to provide an opportunity for teachers to reflect on their research experience

The process of data collection lasted for nine months after the research settings and the participants were confirmed. As Table 2 shows, data were collected at three separate stages. The rationale for structuring data generation in this way was to enable me a) to carry out cyclical data analysis, b) to reflect on the data gathered at previous stages, and c) to plan the next stage of data collection. The teachers had a very tight schedule; therefore, I had to adjust to it completely and conduct interviews when they were able to spare time for them.

*Table 2: Number of data collection activities throughout the study*

Stage of data collection	Data collection method	Participants				
		Katie	Josey	Rudy	Director	Total number
Stage 1 (December, 2015- February, 2016)	Background interview	1	1	1	-	3
	Scenario-based interview	1	1	1	-	3
Stage 2 (March, 2016- July, 2016)	Lesson Observation	6	6	6	-	18
	Stimulated-recall interview	6	6	6	-	18
Stage 3 (July, 2016 – August, 2016)	Final Interview	1	1	1	1	4

#### 4.4.2.1 Stage one

Overall the aims of this stage were the following: a) to build rapport with the teachers, b) to collect data about their professional and educational backgrounds, c) to elicit their beliefs about teaching English, focusing on their beliefs about teaching grammar and d) to provide training opportunities to teachers on articulating their views and reflecting on their classroom practices. During this stage of data collection I conducted one background interview and one scenario-based interview with each teacher (six interviews in total). I was planning to conduct first all background interviews and then all scenario-based interviews. However, due to their heavy workload the teachers had to cancel interviews, which considerably changed my original plans. Therefore, I conducted the interviews when the teachers were able to participate, but made sure that there was at least a week gap between their background interviews and their scenario-based interviews. This allowed me to transcribe and analyse the background interviews before conducting the scenario-based interviews and tailor the scenarios to the teachers' teaching contexts.

##### *Semi-structured background interviews (see Appendix 1)*

Semi-structured interviews are often used by qualitative researchers due to their flexible nature (Borg, 2006). However, the research methods literature points out several challenges of using this data collection method (e.g. responding to unanticipated interviewee behaviour, writing effective questions and instructions, creating transcripts, Roulston, deMarrais & Lewis, 2003) (Creswell, 2013). In the present study the aim of using this data collection instrument was to establish the teachers' educational and professional profiles, and shed light on their stated beliefs about grammar teaching and grammar teaching techniques. I conducted this type of interview once with every participant at the beginning of the research project. Before the interview the teachers were informed that I was interested in cognitive factors in relation to their grammar teaching, but I did not make any reference to beliefs, GPCK or grammar teaching techniques.

##### *Scenario-based interviews (see Appendix 2)*

Scenario-based interview (cued response scenario) refers to an interview type in which teachers receive descriptions of typical classroom situations and are asked to explain how they would act in the given situation and to provide rationales for their decisions (Basturkmen et al, 2004). This data collection instrument is considered to help teachers

articulate their beliefs and provides them with the opportunity to reflect on them (Bullough, 2015). Although this method is suitable for eliciting some beliefs, it cannot provide a realistic picture about what happens when teachers make classroom decisions in a real-life context (Borg, 2006).

In this study the teachers were presented with classroom situations when grammar teaching could occur. The descriptions of the scenarios included a detailed description of the classroom context (e.g., level and age of the students) and the situation when grammar teaching could occur. The teachers were asked to explain how they would provide grammar explanations in the given situations and why they would choose that grammar teaching technique. This data collection method provided insights into the teachers' knowledge and application of grammar teaching techniques and shed some light on the relationship between their beliefs about those techniques and their grammar teaching practices.

During the background interviews I found out that the teachers had never participated in a research study before; therefore, the scenario-based interviews had a very important role in training them to articulate their views about teaching and to provide rationales for their classroom decisions. Due to ethical considerations I asked the teachers to stop interviews anytime if they felt that they could not spare more time to participate; therefore, the number of scenarios discussed varied case by case. Also, most of the scenarios were so realistic that they had recently happened in the teachers' own classroom practices. Hence, instead of hypothesising the teachers often provided a retrospective account of real classroom experiences.

#### 4.4.2.2 Stage two

At this stage of the data collection process my aims were the following: 1) to collect naturally occurring data about the teachers' grammar teaching practices, which enabled me to investigate the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their classroom practices, 2) to gain my participants insights and rationales about significant actions in their grammar teaching practices, which can shed light on the factors that influence their selection and use of grammar teaching techniques. During this stage of the data collection I observed teachers' classroom practices and conducted stimulated-recall interviews. Although I was planning to study each participant in turn, due to unexpected circumstances (e.g. participant sickness, family issues) I had to change my initial plans and study participants simultaneously. Considering the teachers' heavy workload, they were given the freedom to design the observation and

interview schedules. However, these were often changed at the last minute in order to respond to changing circumstances.

#### *Classroom observation*

In order to collect data about the teachers' grammar teaching practices I observed their classes for an extended period of time (5 months). It has been suggested that researchers often find using this data collection instrument challenging due to the variety of factors they need to consider whilst using it (e.g. their role during observations, how they are planning to record their observations, analysing their observations effectively) (Creswell, 2013). Table 3 describes the factors I considered when using this data collection instrument based on the dimensions of observational research provided by Borg (2015, p. 269).

*Table 3: Dimensions of observational research in this study (Borg, 2015, p. 269)*

Dimension	Description
Participation	I mostly acted as a <i>non-participant</i> observer, meaning that my role was to sit at the back of the classroom and avoid interaction with both the teacher and the students. On a few occasions there was an odd number students and I was asked to participate in speaking activities as a student. None of these activities were related to grammar teaching; therefore, they were not selected for discussion during the stimulated-recall interviews.
Awareness	The degree of awareness was <i>overt</i> , as I informed the participants that they were going to be observed and by whom.
Authenticity	I conducted the observations in <i>real</i> settings to be able to collect naturally occurring data.
Disclosure	This dimension refers to the extent to which research participants are aware of the aim of the lesson observation. I was aware that the amount of information that the researcher provides to the participants has to be considered carefully, because 'misrepresenting the purposes of the observations' can raise ethical issues (ibid, p. 278). On the other hand, full

	disclosure can impact on the participants' classroom behaviour. In order to address ethical issues I gave a brief description of my study to the participants, which highlighted that I was going to investigate cognitive factors in relation to the teaching of grammar points. However, I did not make a reference to beliefs or to grammar teaching techniques.
Recording	I used <i>audio recording</i> as the language school did not give me permission to video-record classes. I also made field notes to record any significant event or contextual factor that I could not record technologically. I also collected documents which were related to the classes (e.g. teaching materials, feedback on students' writing) and took pictures (e.g. of teaching materials, the board).
Structure	I did not use any predetermined analytical categories when I recorded the data; therefore, the structure of the recording was <i>open</i> .
Coding	This refers to whether existing frameworks are used during the data coding process. When researchers conduct open observations 'coding may take place retrospectively, allowing categories to be influenced by what is found in the data' (ibid, p. 285). In the present study the observations were coded following an open structure. Within the main themes (foci of the present study) I let data categories emerge retrospectively (Sanchez, 2010).
Analysis	Data was analysed <i>qualitatively</i> .
Scope	I observed 3 teachers, 6 classes each (each class lasted for 150-180 mins), over a period of 5 months.

#### *Stimulated-recall interviews*

Stimulated-recall is an 'introspection procedure in which (normally) videotaped passages of behaviour are replayed to individuals to stimulate recall of their concurrent cognitive activity' (Lyle, 2003, p. 861). In the present study I used stimulated-recall interviews to



elicit teachers' rationales for using certain grammar teaching tools in their observed classroom practices. The generated data shed light on the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and practices. There have been concerns about the effectiveness of this method (e.g. teachers might not be able to provide an accurate account of classroom events which are no longer in their short-term memories, teachers 'provide post-hoc rationalisations' for their classroom decisions, Borg, 2015, p. 246); therefore, Gass and Mackey (2000) suggest that stimulated recall interviews must be designed carefully in advance to minimize any issues related to the type of data they provide.

After every lesson observation I listened to the audio-recording and created a table. In the table every step of the lesson was summarised and visuals related to different stages of the lesson were attached (e.g. pictures of teaching materials, pictures of the board) (see Appendix 3). In the table I highlighted episodes where the teachers gave grammar explanations. Then, I listened to the recording again and transcribed these episodes. The transcripts were thematically analysed following an open structure. I also conducted content analysis on the visuals collected. I used the results of the above analytical strategies to select the foci of the stimulated-recall interviews and prepare the stimulated-recall interview questions. Adopting Sanchez's discussion (2010), Table 4 shows how I used stimulated recall interviews in the present study.

*Table 4: Features of stimulated-recall interviews in the present study*

Category	The present study
Object of introspection	Teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and grammar teaching practices
Modality	Oral introspection
Relationship to concrete action	The introspection was based on real classroom events and actions. In addition, I used documents (e.g. teaching materials, teachers' written feedback) as stimuli.
Temporal relation to action	It seems to be generally accepted that the less time passes between a classroom observation and the follow up stimulated-recall interview, the more valid the generated data will be (Borg, 2015). Taking this into consideration, I conducted the stimulated-recall interviews within a week (2-4 days on average) after the classroom observations. Although preparation for these interviews usually took no more than two days,

	I often had to wait until the teachers became available for an interview due to their heavy workload.
Participant training	The teachers had not participated in research before; therefore, I decided to use scenario-based interviews not only to collect data, but also for training purposes. During the scenario-based interviews the teachers could practice discussing classroom situations. Before the stimulated-recall interviews they were provided with information about the stimulated-recall interview procedure and they had opportunities for asking questions.
Stimulus for recall	I used audio recordings as a recall support. In addition, depending on the classroom situation we discussed I also often used pictures of teaching materials or the teachers' explanations on the board.
Elicitation procedure	The elicitation procedure followed a semi-structured interview structure (see Appendix 4). I played recordings of significant classroom events to the teachers and asked them to comment on them. In order to help them remember classroom events better I often used visuals (e.g. pictures of teaching materials and their explanations on the board).

#### 4.4.2.3 Stage three

After finishing the observations and the stimulated-recall interviews, I conducted a final semi-structured interview. By the time these interviews were conducted all previous interviews had been transcribed and I had finished the initial analysis of the data. Therefore, the aim of these interviews was to discuss any further issues or questions that I had not managed to explore during previous interviews and to provide an opportunity for teachers to reflect on taking part in a research project. At this stage I also decided to conduct a semi-structured interview with the school's Director of Studies in order to collect more data about the institution (this data were used in Chapter II). Originally, I was planning to conduct this interview at the beginning of the study, but due to the Director or Studies' heavy workload it was delayed. In the end of the interviews I thanked all participants with a card for sacrificing their free time to take part in the project.

#### 4.4.3 Pilot Study

Conducting a pilot study is essential in order to test the usefulness of the data collection methods and enable the researcher to revise them before they are used for collecting the main data (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Yin 2014). Also, I had experience conducting

background and scenario-based interviews with teachers, but not conducting stimulated-recall interviews. Therefore, I piloted the data collection instruments not only to test their effectiveness, but also to train myself in using them effectively.

#### 4.4.3.1 Context and participant

Finding a participant who was willing to allow me to observe lessons was extremely challenging; therefore, I only managed to find one participant. He was an experienced teacher who worked at a higher education context as an English for academic purposes (EAP) teacher. He held a CELTA certificate and an MA degree. He also had experience in conducting research and participating in studies. He provided useful insights on my data collection strategies.

#### 4.4.3.2 Data collection procedures

The process of data collection lasted for two weeks. I used the data collection methods outlined in Table 1; however, due to the teacher's heavy workload the scenario-based interview was conducted right after the background interview with no break in between, and it was made shorter than originally planned. After completing Stage 1 I had five days to analyse the data and prepare for the lesson observation and the stimulated-recall interview. After analysing the data I collected during Stage 1, I observed a two-hour-long lesson where the teacher taught English grammar to international students in a higher education context. In order to produce a high quality audio-recording I purchased a microphone which was attached to the recorder with a wire. The teacher was asked to wear the microphone and keep the recorder in his pocket. After the lesson observation I analysed the recording, selected critical episodes and prepared the stimulated-recall interview schedule. I conducted the stimulated-recall interview seven hours after the lesson observation. After the stimulated-recall interview I asked the teacher to reflect on his experiences of taking part in this pilot study (Stage 3).

#### 4.4.3.3 The impact of the pilot study on my data collection plans

Conducting the pilot study helped me discover and address a few issues with my data collection plan:

- a) The scenarios I used in the scenario-based interview schedule did not look realistic enough to the teacher in the pilot study; therefore, they did not provide rich data about the teacher's selection and use of grammar teaching tools. I realised that studying the teachers' classroom contexts before designing scenarios was

essential. As a result I changed all scenarios. Every teacher had different scenarios tailored to their classroom contexts. They were designed based on the data collected during the background interviews.

- b) I realised that the microphone that I was planning to use was really distracting for the teacher. Therefore, I decided not to use an external microphone, instead I just left the recorder on the teachers' desks.
- c) I was planning to use a voice recorder to play back the audio-recording and my mobile phone to record the stimulated-recall interviews; however, my mobile phone turned out to produce a poor quality recording. Therefore, I decided to use a tablet for playing back the recording and recorded the interviews with a voice recorder.
- d) I realised that analysing a lesson observation took more time than I had originally thought it would. In the main study I made sure that I had at least one full day for analysing the data and preparing for the stimulated-recall interviews.

## 4.5 Participants

### 4.5.1 Sampling

I was planning to adopt a *purposeful* sampling strategy (Duff, 2008); however, I was struggling to find teachers who were willing or able to participate. Therefore, I decided to adopt a *snowball* sampling strategy, which refers to an 'approach by which researchers get to know potential participants by means of others' referrals or by word of mouth' (Duff, 2008, p. 117). After I managed to recruit a few teachers who showed willingness to participate, I selected the participants according to the following criteria:

- In-service teachers on an ESOL (in a broader sense) training program in the UK
- Qualified English language teachers (the level of qualification was not a sampling criterion).

The rationale for these criteria were the following: 1) the participants should all experience the phenomena being studied (Creswell, 2013); therefore, they had to be in-service English language teachers. 2) I had chosen to study teachers who work in ESOL programs, because this is an under-explored research context. In addition, I wanted to study teachers who work in similar contexts and; therefore, might share similar experiences. 3) I needed in-service teacher participants in order to be able to collect data about their grammar teaching practices.

#### 4.5.2 Case 1 – Katie

Katie's first language was English. She also studied French at school and later she lived in France with her family. In France she studied French intensively, which inspired her to start a new career and become an English language teacher. When she returned to England, she enrolled in the Cambridge CELTA course. That is where she completed her in-service teacher training. She started teaching right after the course. Katie had been teaching for eight years and gained all her teaching experience in the UK. She taught general English in different teaching contexts, such as colleges, summer schools and private institutions. She mainly taught mixed-nationality, adult groups; however, she had experience teaching teenagers as well. She had been teaching at Tower Language School for four years. She had been teaching the pre-intermediate group, but also taught one-to-one lessons.

#### 4.5.3 Case 2 – Josey

Josey's first language was also English. She learnt foreign languages, French and German at school and completed her O-level exams from both languages (equivalent to GCSEs). She also took part in a French exchange program when she was a student. In order to obtain a teaching qualification she completed the nine-month version of the Cambridge CELTA course. Josey had been teaching English for eight years and gained all her teaching experience in the UK. She had worked in different teaching contexts, such as private companies (language teaching for company employees), colleges and private language schools. She started her career teaching one-to-one business English classes to Japanese students. She also taught teenagers at summer schools. Josey had been teaching at Tower Language School for four years. She had been teaching the intermediate group, but also taught one-to-one lessons.

#### 4.5.4 Case 3 – Rudy

Rudy's first language was Polish, but he started learning English at an early age. At primary school he took up extracurricular English classes, and at secondary school he learnt English at a private language institution. He also studied Russian and German at school. He started his teacher training in Poland, where he completed first a Bachelors and then a Masters course in English Philology with a specialisation in English language teaching. During his teacher training he taught English at a local high school (course requirement). Rudy had been teaching English for 9-10 years. After finishing his teacher training he gained teaching experience in the UK. First he had taught English to Polish

adults and then to multilingual adult groups. He taught ESOL courses at two different colleges and also worked at a private institution before joining Tower Language School. While teaching in the UK, he took part in in-service teacher training and completed the Cambridge CELTA course. He had been teaching at Tower Language School for 4-5 years. He had been teaching the upper-intermediate group, but also taught one-to-one exam preparation classes (e.g. IELTS, CAE).

#### 4.6 Data analysis

In the present study different qualitative data analysis approaches were used, following the recommendations of Duff (2008), Denscombe (2010), Charmaz (2006) and Creswell (2013). Although originally I did not plan to analyse the data following the recommendations of grounded theorists, my approach to data analysis seems to show many characteristics of grounded theory data analysis. Although the research questions shaped the focus of the data analysis (the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their selection and use of these strategies in their classroom practices), I used analytical strategies that enabled me to explore fresh ideas about the data (Charmaz, 2006). Both *cyclical* and *summative* data analysis were used (Borg, 2011). Cyclical data analysis was used throughout the data collection process. Data produced by each data collection method for each teacher was analysed before the next phase of data collection took place. After all data were collected summative data analysis was carried out both within and across the three cases. The process of data analysis consisted of the following steps:

1. During the data collection process all data were stored in code-protected files and they were categorised according to the cases and methods of data collection.
2. The audio-recordings of interviews and lesson observations were transcribed (see a sample transcript in Appendix 5). The transcripts were e-mailed to the participants who were asked to check them and make corrections if necessary. I also added field notes to the observation transcripts to remind myself of classroom events which were not possible to audio-record.
3. While carrying out cyclical data analysis, I wrote memos about the observation and stimulated-recall interview data (usually in the form of post-it notes displayed above my desk), in order to remind myself to discuss certain episodes with the teachers and note recurring themes in the data.
4. Then, transcripts were coded (see sample coded interview transcript in Appendix 6) following Creswell's (2013) recommendations for coding qualitative data. Although

the analysis was guided by the research questions, I let new themes emerge from the data.

5. As discussed above (section 4.3.2) the present study follows an embedded multiple case design, where my embedded units of analysis (teachers' beliefs about GTTs and their use of GTTs) indicate the focus of my study, and informed both the within-case and the across-case analyses. First, I carried out *within case analysis*, which refers to 'the in-depth exploration of a single case as a stand-alone entity' (Paterson, 2010, p. 971). I organised the data about each case into word tables. I created tables about the teachers' previous learning experiences, professional education and experiences, stated beliefs about learning, teaching and students, stated beliefs about learning and teaching, grammar teaching techniques (mentioned during the background interviews) to summarise data collected during the background interviews. Then I created a table for summarising the scenario-based interview data. Finally, I created tables about the grammar teaching techniques the teachers' used in their observed practices, the impact of the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools on their practices and about the influence of practice on the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques. Creating these tables allowed me to see the data in a more systematic way and help me structure my case reports in the finding chapter, where I provided a detailed description of each case (see a sample table in Appendix 7).
6. After finishing my case reports I conducted cross-case analysis. *Cross-case analysis* refers to doing 'analysis across a number of cases [...] for the identification of similarities and differences across the cases and the identification of common themes' (Burns, 2010, p. 265). In order to be able to compare the cases more easily I made a concise summary table about each case (see Appendix 8). Then, I made cross-case analysis tables (see Tables 34-37 in Chapters VIII-IX) to be able to see similarities and differences between the three cases. These tables helped me to write up Chapter VIII (Cross-Case Synthesis) and Chapter IX (Discussion) and highlight my contributions to the field of teacher cognition.

#### 4.7 Trustworthiness and Authenticity

Research handbooks (e.g. Duff, 2008; Creswell, 2013) often refer to these concepts as *validity and reliability* in the context of qualitative research. However, these terms were borrowed from the positivist paradigm, which is associated with quantitative research (Lincoln et al, 2011). It has been argued that there are fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research, therefore evaluating qualitative research using

concepts from the quantitative paradigm is misleading (Davies & Dodd, 2002; Steinke, 2004, Yilmaz, 2013). *Trustworthiness* and *authenticity* are rooted in the constructivist paradigm; therefore they are considered to be more aligned with the nature of qualitative research (Lincoln et al, 2011).

*Authenticity* means that 'researchers seek reassurance that both the conduct and evaluation of research are genuine and credible not only in terms of participants' lived experiences but also with respect to the wider political and social implications of research' (James, 2008. p. 45). Authenticity appears to have an important role in accounting for trustworthiness. According to Lincoln et al. (2011), there are five essential criteria that can strengthen a study's authenticity. The first criterion is *fairness*, which

was defined by deliberate attempts to prevent marginalisation, to act affirmatively with respect to inclusion and to act with energy to ensure that all voices in the enquiry effort had a chance to be represented in any texts and to have their stories treated fairly and with balance (ibid, p. 122).

In the present study all of the teachers' views and interpretations of the phenomena were represented and treated fairly, to avoid marginalization and bias. The second criterion is *ontological authenticity*, 'the extent to which participants have a raised level of awareness' (James, 2008, p.45). This refers to the researchers' responsibility for making the research participants develop a greater understanding of the phenomena being studied in their micro contexts. In this study during the background and scenario-based interviews the teachers could verbalize their beliefs about grammar teaching and during the stimulated-recall interviews they could reflect on their classroom practices. I believe that these data collection techniques helped the teachers develop belief awareness and gain a better understanding of the relationship between their beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their selection and use of grammar teaching techniques. The third criterion, *educative authenticity*, is an extended version of the previous criterion. It refers to developing the participants' understanding of the phenomena in their macro contexts, such as taking into consideration the views of other social groups. Learning about the phenomena studied might have helped the teachers interpret other teachers' practices and understand why researchers and teacher trainers encourage them to verbalize their beliefs and reflect on their practices. The two final criteria are *catalytic* and *tactical authenticity*. The former refers to the extent of the study's impact on the participants' practices, whereas the latter refers to impact on the actions of members of a broader social context (e.g. other staff at the institution, management). Developing belief awareness and reflecting on their grammar teaching practices can have a positive impact on the teachers' practices, which might encourage them to talk about their experiences and encourage other teachers to reflect on their beliefs and practices.



The concept of *trustworthiness* allows researchers to reconsider quantitative terms, such as ‘generalizability, internal validity, reliability, and objectivity’ by using qualitative terms instead, such as ‘transferability, credibility, dependability, and confirmability’ in their research projects (Given & Saumure, 2008, p. 896). *Transferability* ‘reflects the need to be aware of and to describe the scope of one’s qualitative study so that its applicability to different contexts (broad or narrow) can be readily discerned’ (ibid, p. 896). In the present study I provided a detailed description of the phenomena and the context that I researched. In addition, after analysing the data, I provided information about the contexts where the results of my study could be applied. *Credibility* is a qualitative version of the term *internal validity*, meaning that the researcher describes the phenomenon studied in-depth. First, by producing the literature review chapter, I provided a detailed description of the topic of this study. Then, by using multiple data collection methods, which can capture the complex and dynamic nature of the relationship between beliefs and practice (*data triangulation*, e.g. Denscombe, 2010, Creswell, 2013) and studying the teachers through an extended period of time (9 months) I made sure that I collected a sufficient amount of rich data. During the process of data analysis I made sure that the generated data were carefully coded and analysed in depth, so I could provide an accurate, rich description of the nature of the phenomena in the discussion section. *Confirmability* ‘reflects the need to ensure that the interpretations and findings match the data’ (ibid, p. 896). After I transcribed the interviews, I e-mailed the transcripts to the teachers for checking to ensure that the data had been captured accurately (*respondent validation*, Creswell, 2013). In the findings section I included quotations from the teachers in order to provide an accurate description of the teachers’ interpretations of the phenomena. *Dependability* means that ‘the researcher lays out his or her procedure and research instruments in such a way that others can attempt to collect data in similar conditions’ (ibid, p. 897). In the present study, by producing this chapter on methodology I inform the reader about the processes of my research and my methods of data collection, so the same research project could be replicated in similar conditions.

#### 4.8 Ethical considerations

According to the Nuremberg Code and the Declaration of Helsinki, researchers are expected to conduct their studies in line with the following rules:

- protect the interests of the participants
- ensure that participation is voluntary
- avoid deception and scientific integrity
- comply with the laws of the land (Denscombe, 2010, p. 331).

I believe that the present study, due to the level of personal involvement (of both the researcher and the participants), could pose ethical issues that had to be considered and minimised before the project started. In order to minimise ethical risks I followed the steps listed below, which are based on Denscombe (2010) and the BERA (2011) guidelines:

- I waited for the ethical approval from Department of Education's Ethics Committee (University of Bath) before I started data collection (see the Ethical Approval form in Appendix 9).
- I did not contact teacher participants before I received the permission from the director of their institution, who was made aware of the aims and procedures of my study.
- When I recruited participants, I informed them about the process of the research project, the estimated time it required, and the main aims.
- Before I started collecting data, I obtained the informed consent of my participants. I informed them that their participation was voluntarily and they could withdraw their consent anytime during the project (see the Information Sheet and Consent Form in Appendix 10).
- In case descriptions (e.g. thesis, conference presentations) anonymity was guaranteed by the use of pseudonyms instead of the participants' and the institution's real names.
- All data collected are kept confidential. Recordings are stored on my PC in code protected files, which means that I am the only person who can make connections between the data and the participants' identity. The participants were informed that the data (without disclosing their identity) could be accessed by supervisors, panel members and examiners. In addition, I asked the participants' permission for the public use of their cases (e.g. conference presentations) when I asked for their consent.
- The participants could access their own interview transcripts anytime during the research project.
- After each interview the participants were asked to check their interview transcripts (*respondent validation*) and make corrections if they wanted to.

#### 4.9 Conclusion

The aim of this section was to provide a detailed description of the methodology of the present study. After discussing my arguments for selecting a case study design (section 4.3) and using the data collection instruments mentioned above (section 4.4.4) in the

following section I will present my findings and provide a detailed description of each case.

## Chapter V. Katie

As discussed in Chapter III (Literature Review), teachers' beliefs are the result of 'substantial social experiences' (Skott, 2013, cited in Skott, 2015, p. 19). In order to understand what kind of social experiences informed the teachers' beliefs it is essential to provide information about their educational and professional backgrounds. Therefore, in Chapters V, VI and VII I will start the description of each case by providing information about the teachers' previous learning experiences, educational backgrounds and professional experiences. Then, as the aim of this research project is to explore the relationship between beliefs and practice, I will describe key events which provide insight into the bidirectional relationship between the participants' beliefs and practices. These key events are all instances where the participants used grammar teaching techniques to make grammar content accessible to their students. Although the primary sources of data are the lesson observations and the follow-up stimulated-recall interviews, data from the background and scenario-based interviews will be used for triangulation purposes.

Throughout the case descriptions the following conventions are used to help the reader locate the sources of information in the data corpus: background interview (**BI**), scenario-based interview (**SBI**), stimulated-recall interview (**SRI**), classroom observation (**O**).

### 5.1 Background

#### 5.1.1 Personal and Prior Educational History

##### 5.1.1.1 Secondary School

Katie's earliest memories of language learning come from her secondary school literature lessons. She had an English language and literature teacher whom she really admired. Katie described her as a very passionate teacher who 'brought the subject alive' (BI). Although, she could not remember learning about the structure of the English language, she recalled learning about creative thinking, writing and developing imagination. This is where her interest in the English language started, she explained.

Katie learnt a foreign language, French, at school. This was her first experience of learning grammar. The classes were solely grammar focused, she recalled, without any speaking practice. She described the grammar teaching techniques her teacher used as: 'Parroting. On the board, we just wrote it down and kept writing it down, kind of parrot fashion' (BI). The classes were very boring and the quality of teaching was poor, Katie

recalled. Although she was not satisfied with her French classes, she explained that when she moved to France she was able to recall most of the grammar she had been taught. This made her wonder about the effectiveness of the teaching techniques used: 'even though it's old fashioned, parrot fashioned it's just repeat, repeat, write repeat. (...) maybe that is a good way of remembering (BI)'. This appears to be some evidence of the impact of her pre-training French learning experience on the development of her beliefs. (BI)

Regarding the impact of the above learning experiences on Katie's development as a teacher, she explained: 'you have to really have that passion for whatever you're teaching because that is instilled in your students (...) whatever environment you are teaching' (BI). Therefore, her learning experiences appeared to form a belief about the importance of showing passion about the content of teaching.

#### 5.1.1.2 Learning French in France

Later on Katie moved to France with her family, which seemed to have a great impact on her beliefs about language learning and teaching. When she arrived, she enrolled in an intensive French language course. She said that she was taught by an experienced language teacher whom she found brilliant (BI).

The course was grammar-based, Katie explained, but with a focus on communication. She found grammar and vocabulary learning quite easy, she recalled; however, speaking turned out to be very difficult for her. When she moved to France, she could speak, she explained, but she used to make a lot of mistakes. However, as soon as she started learning grammar and realised how many mistakes she was making, she stopped speaking. She shared the following experience:

(...) when I started to sit down and actually do the course and realise the horrendous mistakes I was making and the terrible use of French (...) I was horrified. (...) I stopped speaking. (...) then I realised actually what happens is this: you go through this what they call intellectualising stage (...) when you have to speak spontaneously you're in that kind of phase where you think what tense do I use? Which preposition do I use? How do I structure this sentence? And then the moment is gone. (...) You can't speak because you're not computing quickly enough in your brain to actually form this perfect sentence that you want to use (...) that takes practice, practice, practice and speaking, speaking, speaking to get to that stage when all this lovely grammar, information, all this lovely vocabulary you have learnt, you can just put it into the right order. (BI, p. 3)

This experience impacted on Katie's beliefs about the teaching of grammar and speaking. She believed that foreign language learners went through a stage in their

learning when they needed a lot of speaking practice to be able to apply their declarative knowledge spontaneously.

Despite her difficulties with speaking, Katie said that at this course there was an ‘equal balance’ between learning grammar and speaking practice, which she lacked during her language learning in the UK (BI). Reflecting on this experience, she told me that she strongly believed in keeping an ‘equal balance’ between grammar and communication (BI). She also emphasised the importance of putting grammar knowledge into practice in order to memorise structures.

(...) unless you’re put into those situations you won’t really remember. Unless you use this language that you’ve learnt it can all very well be writing it in a book and repeating but you’ve got to use it at some stage (BI).

Katie’s French teacher used a larger variety of techniques for making grammar content accessible for her students than her previous language teachers. She provided written rule explanations on the board, asked questions about grammar structures and used handouts with a lot of examples on, Katie recalled (BI). They did not spend much time on writing, but quickly moved on to communication activities, Katie explained (BI).

Overall, this learning experience had a great impact on Katie’s choice of career and teaching. It did not only impact on her beliefs about language learning and teaching, but also inspired her to become an English language teacher.

While I was in France I had obviously a lot of experience of being taught French (...) I thought (...) what a lovely thing to do to inspire someone to learn a language (...) this person (...) can learn a language purely by someone else’s teaching methods, passion (...) I thought (...) that’s something I would like to do! (BI)

*Table 5: Influence of PLLEs on Katie’s beliefs and grammar teaching practices*

Occurrence	GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Other beliefs
Secondary School French Lessons	Written rule explanations on the board	Not enjoyable, but memorable	Teachers need to be passionate about teaching
Intensive French course in France	Rule explanations on the board, questions about grammar structures, examples on handouts	-	There needs to be a good balance between grammar and communication

### 5.1.2 Professional Education

After moving back to England, Katie decided to enrol in the CELTA course. She did the intensive version of the CELTA course which she attended every day for a month. She had to do a pre-course test, she explained, which she did using her knowledge of the English language as a native speaker. However, at that point she seemed to have no explicit knowledge of English grammar. She had concerns about whether she was able to complete the course. She remembered the first day in the following way:

(...) there was one guy who seemed to know everything (...) about the English language. Tenses... I had no idea at all. (...) I remember saying to the tutor, after literally the morning of getting to know you (...) 'I don't think I should be here'. (BI)

Despite her initial doubts, Katie decided to stay; however, she found the course very challenging. She explained: 'By the end of it I think I lost two stones in weight, in sheer fear of teaching and getting my head around it (BI)'. To Katie the course did not focus on grammar at all. Only grammar that she had to teach during her teaching practice was discussed. Conversely, she was expected to research grammar on her own. Reflecting on this, she added that she would have preferred if she had been taught at least some basic grammar. Many grammar teaching techniques were introduced to her during the course (she could not recall any specific ones), Katie recalled, but most of them seemed to be time consuming, so she decided not to use them. She picked up the techniques and activities that she found easy to use: visuals and quizzes, she said. (BI)

As part of her course Katie had to do lesson observations. She could remember the way her teachers taught and the individual teaching styles they had, she said. She found observations very interesting, she said, and recalled the following: 'they used everything, anything and everything, drawing, acting, realia, bit of speaking, less speaking the better, as far as they were concerned, as far as I'm concerned, although I do speak a lot' (SRI4). Therefore, during the course she seemed to be encouraged to keep teacher talking time to the minimum.

Katie also had to do observed teaching practice during the course. During these teaching practices she used elicitation, verbal and written rule explanations, examples, comparisons and different grammar games to make grammar content accessible for her learners, she recalled (BI).

Overall, the CELTA course gave Katie confidence and taught her how to approach a lesson (e.g. timing, lesson planning), she explained. She said that 'the CELTA course was really good for knowing how to approach a lesson. How to really organise yourself' (BI). However, to Katie 'in practice it's not really realistic to use that kind of plan, (...) it's something to keep to in case [she] got lost' (BI). What she did in the classroom always

depended on ‘the time, (...) the way the lesson is going [and] the kind of students’, she added (BI). Interestingly, the CELTA course had no impact on her grammar teaching, Katie said.

*Table 6: Impact of professional educational on Katie’s beliefs*

Occurrence	GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Other beliefs
CELTA course	Visuals	Easy to use, not time consuming	Detailed lesson plans do not work in practice.
CELTA course lesson observations	Drawing, acting, realia + keeping teacher talking time to the minimum	-	-
CELTA teaching practice	Elicitation, verbal and written rule explanations, examples, comparisons	-	-

## 5.2 Teaching Experience

### 5.2.1 Overall experience with language students

Katie had mainly been teaching adult, mixed nationality groups in the UK for eight years; however, she also taught adolescents for a shorter period of time at a summer school. When I asked her to talk about the advantages and disadvantages of teaching adult, immigrant learners, she compared them to the adolescents she taught. While adolescents are ‘here for a holiday’, she said, immigrant students all ‘have the incentive to want to learn’ English for different reasons (BI). Katie explained that these students came from all over the world, so there was a good mix of languages and cultures in her groups. Students in her teaching context tended to come ‘in waves’ depending on the current economic and political situation in different countries (BI). One of the challenges that Katie needed to face was that sometimes there were many students within the same group who spoke the same first language. These students often used their first language instead of English in the classroom, Katie explained, which could be ‘quite intimidating for the student that doesn’t come from the same country’ (BI). To Katie, teaching adult, immigrant students could be challenging, because there tended to be a lot of differences between individual students’ level of English. She felt that she needed to take this into consideration when she taught these groups. She said: ‘(...) you do have to differentiate your teaching to accommodate those who maybe are not as able



as say other students in the same group' (BI). Despite these occasional difficulties, Katie enjoyed teaching these students and the linguistic and cultural diversity of these groups, she said.

Katie had taught at different institutions, but when I asked her about her experiences of teaching, she seemed to constantly make a comparison between her previous (Language School One (pseudonym) and current workplace (Tower Language School). Therefore, in the next two sections these experiences will be discussed in detail.

### 5.2.2 Language School One

Language School One was an international private language school. The institution had amazing classrooms and facilities and a large number of students from all over the world, Katie said. There were about 14-15 students in every class, she recalled. Although the facilities amazed Katie, she found the school 'quite rigid', as both teachers and students had to follow strict rules (BI). She felt that the students had very high expectations, because they paid high fees to be able to study there. She had to work very hard to be able to meet these expectations, she recalled. Katie had to prepare lesson plans for every lesson and research everything she taught. She was also expected to make additional teaching materials, and use them alongside the course book. Reflecting on this experience, Katie said that she enjoyed this because she could put what she had learnt during the CELTA course into practice.

Regarding grammar teaching at Language School One, she remembered presenting grammar on the board and then doing controlled practice in groups or pairs. She described the controlled practice she did as an interesting visual exercise: '(...) maybe [a] gap fill, maybe sort of putting sentences on the board, they have to choose the correct one, so (...) applying the grammar' (BI). After the controlled practice she would do grammar auctions, she said: 'So in small groups or pairs. Look at the sentence (...), bid (...). If it's incorrect you got to rewrite it, yeah especially when we are looking at grammar we have already covered' (BI). Katie considered this activity a good way of integrating grammar. She seemed to believe that grammar auctions and the abovementioned activities helped students remember grammar structures: 'Also, learning the structure of that grammar and hopefully because you're using it in that way, having to recognise whether it's correct or not, hopefully it stays, they will remember it' (BI). Katie also used grammar quizzes and a game called 'noughts and crosses' for grammar teaching purposes, she remembered.

(...) it could be noughts and crosses but with vocab and grammar that we have looked at in the past, like who is whose, who's for who is short form and whose

possessive that kind of thing. And they got to play noughts and crosses with it, they got to put all these words (...) into a correct sentence that kind of thing (BI).

Katie also used a lot of worksheets that her students did in pairs and then discussed with the rest of the class, she said. After the above activities she would do freer practice, she added.

### 5.2.3 Tower Language School

To Katie, compared to Language School One, Tower Language School 'has a slightly more laidback air about it, it's not as strict' (BI). However, the expectations were equally high there, she added, because she worked with experienced teachers. Katie felt that the environment of the school was very welcoming and friendly compared to Language School One.

At Tower Language School Katie taught the pre-intermediate group where she followed a set syllabus determined by the course book, which is the fourth edition of New Headway. Katie's teaching practice seemed to be influenced by the syllabus she had to follow:

(...) there are advantages and disadvantages to following a course book. (...) it ties me down (...). So I teach this level three mornings a week and I have to cover the syllabus and have to work through, don't have to but I'm supposed to (...) when you are working to a course book it's really difficult then to fit everything into the time that you have, then I try to sort of bring in my own material as well (BI).

Although Katie felt that she had a limited amount of time for using her own materials, she mentioned supplementing the course book with materials from other resource books, games, quizzes and lyrics of music. However, she seemed to be very conscious of her students' expectations: covering what was in the course book:

(...) So lots of students, well one or two said why are we not going to do this, why haven't we done that? Because I chose to do this instead and we did this practice yesterday I thought it would be a bit more interesting, so sometimes I find I have to justify my choices (BI).

Despite her concern about addressing her students' expectations, Katie often added extra communication activities if she thought that there were not enough of them in the course book. She explained that 'it's really important that they [students] have a lot of communication because it's always the most difficult skill' (BI).

Regarding testing, she said that she did not need to prepare her students for any specific language exam in class; however, the course book was laid out in a way that it tested her students' knowledge in the end of every unit. Katie also did revision activities fortnightly, she said, such as grammar auctions, gap fills or put sentences on the board that her students needed to correct. She consciously avoided calling these tests, she

explained, because her students 'don't like tests but they like to revise, they like going over and (...) they like having little quizzes (...), they like to be tested but in a fun way' (BI).

In her grammar teaching Katie followed the PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production) approach, she explained, so she usually did a grammar presentation which was followed by controlled practice and freer practice (BI).

Tower Language School provided professional development opportunities for its teachers, Katie explained. She could sign up for online courses, she said. In addition, occasionally the teachers received worksheets from the director of studies that they needed to hand in. The director also gave them feedback on their work. Moreover, they organised meetings which Katie found interesting and informative, she said, because she could see how her colleagues approached teaching. Furthermore, they did observations on each other where she could learn about her colleagues' teaching styles (BI).

*Table 7: Impact of gaining teaching experience on the development of Katie's beliefs*

Occurrence	GTTs	Belief about GTTs	Other beliefs
Language School One	<i>Rule explanations on the board</i> <i>Putting example sentences on the board: students need to fill in the gaps or choose the correct option</i> <i>Grammar games: Grammar auctions, quizzes, noughts and crosses: examples and error correction</i>	Help students remember the structure  Visual, interesting exercises, helps students remember the structure, provides controlled practice  A good way of integrating grammar, helps students remember the structure, provides freer practice	-
Tower Language School	Grammar auctions: <i>example sentences</i> on the board that the sts need to <i>correct</i> , gap fills	Helps students revise grammar and test their knowledge	Students do not like tests.

### 5.3 Beliefs about grammar, grammar learning and grammar teaching

#### 5.3.1 Belief about grammar and grammar learning

In Katie's understanding grammar meant: 'The structure of language and how we use it. Tenses, vocab, structure' (BI). She considered grammar difficult and compared it to a puzzle: 'you have to be given the knowledge and information to put a sentence together, to understand how to construct (...) a good sentence to express yourself' (BI). Her definitions show that there seemed to be both a declarative and a procedural dimension in the way she conceptualised grammar. Also, she seemed to believe that grammar was a tool for communication, a necessary piece of information people had to have to be able to communicate successfully.

The data also provide insights into Katie's beliefs about grammar learning:

(...) as you move up through the levels (...) it becomes more complex, and that's when it can be quite difficult and scary for students. But I think if they start consistently and just move up through the levels and they build on this grammar knowledge, use these structures, (...) their knowledge, in speaking, you can see their confidence building, you know this is not too difficult after all (...) It is the very foundation of a language without that we can't really, (...) ... you need to have that to give you the confidence, (...) to be able to speak. (...) constructively, effectively (...) (BI).

The passage shows that Katie had a pragmatic view of grammar learning. She seemed to believe that learning grammar made students more competent and confident language users.

#### 5.3.2 Beliefs about teaching grammar

Katie defined teaching grammar as follows:

(...) giving the students the structure of a language. Giving the building blocks to have the confidence to speak and to use the language. (...) you have to start from the very beginning really (...) How to (...) construct sentences with the vocab, continue building on this knowledge. (BI)

To Katie the teacher's role was the role of a transmitter: to provide students with the relevant knowledge and information about how the English language was used and how they could construct sentences.

Katie's comments on her knowledge of grammar shed some light on her self-efficacy beliefs related to grammar teaching. She felt confident about teaching tenses and conditionals, she shared. However, she did not seem to feel confident about teaching

advanced level grammar. She could 'read passages and (...) gap fill exercises (...) and know which word to use', she explained; however, 'if [she] had to explain it, that's more difficult' (BI). This sheds some light on Katie's beliefs about her capability of using her grammar knowledge in a pedagogical capacity: she did not consider herself capable of explaining difficult grammar points.

When Katie was asked about how frequently grammar teaching featured in her practices, she said that she always had a grammar point and 'it's always a big chunk of the lesson as well' (BI). However, as discussed above (section 5.1.1) Katie strongly believed in keeping an equal balance between teaching grammar and speaking. She said that whenever she did 'any grammar teaching [she tried] to get some speaking in there as well' (BI).

### 5.3.3 Stated beliefs about her GTTs

During the background interview Katie often provided retrospective accounts of her grammar teaching practices. These discussions provided some insight into her use of grammar teaching techniques and her beliefs about them.

Katie taught a lesson right before the background interview. During the interview she provided a retrospective account of how she had taught grammar there.

(...) today we are looking at the Past Simple and the Past Continuous and how we use them together. (...) I'm teaching a pre-intermediate course, I go back and we look at how we form, (...) the Past Simple and (...) the Past Continuous and how we use it. (...) While in the past (...) they have looked at them separately (...) now we combine them and that's more complicated. (...) So what I do is I present it first on the board, so I give them lots of examples of how we use it and then I present it within listening and reading exercises. So to begin with (...) I will recap, use lots of exercises on the board (...) put different sentences on the board to illustrate both (...). And now we look at the structure, we look at the uses and then I present it again, within the reading, within the listening (...) in context (BI).

The reason why Katie decided to teach the past simple and the past continuous, she said, was that on the day of the background interview the course book looked at how these tenses were used together. At Tower Language School they 'follow (...) a course book and each unit looks at a different aspect of grammar', Katie explained (BI). Based on the example above, Katie's grammar teaching method involved: presenting grammar content, showing the students how it was used and presenting it again in context (within a reading or a listening activity). In the above case Katie provided rule explanations on the board followed by examples, comparisons and presentations within texts to make the grammar content of the unit accessible for her students.

Katie also provided reasons for using the above methods and techniques and in the above sequence. She seemed to believe that in order to use grammar students 'need to have the basic knowledge to begin with' (BI). Tower Language School allowed continuous enrolment, she explained, which meant that new students could join her class any time during the year. Being very conscious of this, Katie wanted to make sure that every student could follow her lessons. Her presentation techniques and the amount of time she spent on presenting grammar content would always depend on her students' knowledge.

So I always do a recap and then it sort of depends, if (...) the majority of students have been taught this particular grammar point, then we will do a quick recap, revision of how it's... written, (...) its uses and then we are going into more details. More illustrations. But if they have never come across it before, and if it's new to some of the students, then I will spend obviously more time explaining how we use it, how we write it, lots of examples on the board, we do some gap fills, we do (...) it's revision well, for some it is revision, for some it's new (BI).

In addition, whether she would present the structure upfront or let the students discover grammar structures from texts and provide them a presentation afterwards would depend on her students' needs and learning styles.

Sometimes we do discover later on and sometimes I give them right up front, but it depends on my class, who makes up my class and what I think they need, and how best do they learn. Some people learn easily when you reveal later on, some people just get confused and then they ask you the questions: I don't understand why is it spelt like this or why is the verb got an -ing in the end? (BI)

Katie also saw a difference between teaching grammar to students with a higher and a lower level of English. At higher levels she would be 'more creative (...) and (...) wouldn't reveal everything up front' (BI). She would include more interesting activities and elicit the use and structure from the students rather than presenting it. At lower levels she would 'give them the structure and use right up front (...) and then do lots of, lots of practice' (BI). This shows the situated nature of Katie's beliefs: the classroom context was an influential factor that impacted on the relationship between her beliefs about grammar teaching and her grammar teaching practices.

Katie often used *grammar auctions* in her grammar teaching practice, she said, and she described it as a successful activity. The key to its success was that it was a 'fun' activity, she explained (BI). She seemed to believe that this activity was not only enjoyable but also helped students revise grammar and remember the structure. '(...) it's presenting it [grammar content] in a fun way... but also they are revising at the same time and hopefully (...) it will stay' (BI). During the activity she used a variety of grammar teaching techniques. She put example sentences on the board which included grammar structures that her students had recently learnt. She used both correct and incorrect sentences and

the students had to bid on whether these sentences were correct. She explained that this activity helped her assess students' understanding of grammar content. After the activity she said that she elicited the correct structures, which often led to a discussion about the structure. This activity worked well, Katie explained, because the students worked in teams: 'they are helping each other, they are pulling their knowledge together' (BI). This suggests that Katie considered collaborative learning beneficial to students. Also, Katie believed that her current group liked this activity (BI). This shows that Katie held beliefs about her students' preferences.

Katie also gave an example of an unsuccessful grammar activity. She remembered using a grammar game where a dice and a game board were used. The activity did not work, she said, because it was confusing and she did not explain it well. Reflecting on the experience, Katie thought that every activity worked if it was explained well; however, not every activity was enjoyable for the students (BI).

#### **5.4 The relationship between Katie's beliefs and practices**

The data show (see Appendix 14) that Katie had used a large variety of tools for making grammar content accessible to her learners in her observed practices. Although some of these techniques did not feature often in her observed practices (e.g. synonyms), others were frequently used and combined. These included exemplification (sentences, short story, dialogues), elicitation (examples and rules, often using concept or context questions), different types of visual tools (diagram, gestures, realia, colour coding, underlining) and rule explanations. Katie always combined her verbal or typewritten rule explanations with techniques which provided a different perspective (e.g. examples, visual tools). When Katie was asked to explain why she used the above GTTs, her rationale shed light on a set of beliefs that informed her classroom decisions. Not only beliefs about grammar teaching techniques but a variety of other external and internal influential factors seemed to impact on her selection of the above techniques. Also, her rationales provided some evidence of the impact of engaging in classroom practice on Katie's beliefs. These aspects will be discussed in the following sections.

##### **5.4.1 Katie's beliefs and practice about GTTs**

###### **5.4.1.1 Beliefs and practice about exemplification**

Katie often used different types of examples in her grammar teaching practices, which she usually presented in co-text and context (Thornbury, 1999). For instance, she used exemplification to teach past simple to her students in the following way:

First, she wrote a possible conversation between herself and her students on the board as an example (Figure 4). The example was a personal one, a dialogue about what Katie had done at the weekend.

<p>_____you_____a good weekend?          Yes, I _____.          No, I _____.          What _____ you _____?          I _____(paint) the shed yesterday.          I _____ _____ time to go shopping. I was working in the garden all weekend.</p>
--

Figure 4: Gap filling activity on the board

Figure 4 shows that Katie left out parts of the conversation and elicited them from the class, like in the following example:

K: (...) Questions, what do I need?  
 Student C: Auxiliary.  
 K: I need...it's the auxiliary, yes, did. So here is your auxiliary, yes. (...) What does the auxiliary do? (O1)

Then Katie compared the structure of negative sentences, questions and short answers. In order to check her students' understanding she wrote incorrect structures on the board (e.g. I did paint) and got her students to correct them. She provided the following rationale for using exemplification:

(...) to get them thinking and it's just a review of what we did, (...) it's just another way of revising (...) I just thought it's a more hands on way of getting them to tell me because sometimes if you say: Okay, how do we write...? It's really boring. For them. But if they can see it on the board, they know there are missing words or missing verbs I just think it's more interesting. (...) I'm constantly aware of, I always do it in an interesting way. And I wanted them to think about the form (...) it's just another way of (...) reinstating the structure and revising and you know can they spot the mistakes' (SRI1).

To Katie, using exemplification, comparisons and error correction together was an effective way of revising grammar, as it promoted reflection, added diversity, and increased students' motivation, and allowed her to assess her students' understanding of grammar content. The data provide evidence that engaging in grammar teaching informed the development of these beliefs. When I asked whether she had used the above grammar teaching tools before, she answered: 'Yes, loads of times. (...) it's always successful. I tend to do things that are successful and just a bit more fun (...)'. (SRI1). This suggests that Katie's beliefs about the activity and the grammar teaching techniques used within it were informed and reinforced by multiple positive teaching experiences. The data also suggest that Katie's beliefs about the grammar teaching techniques are situated. For example, when Katie explained why she used a form of error correction, she said:



And to be honest this class is so good. They love that kind of thing. I wouldn't do it with a class that hates it. (...) They're very receptive to this kind of thing. So I do with them quite a bit actually, they don't mind it and they do pick it up really quickly (SRI1).

Katie's experiences with this particular class thus informed her beliefs about the effectiveness of this grammar teaching technique.

On another occasion, Katie elicited examples from her students. After a speaking activity, where the students had to talk about their weekends in pairs, she elicited correct example sentences (e.g. *She went to London with her husband.*) from her students' conversations. She wrote them on the board and underlined past simple constructions within them. She provided the following rationale:

(...) They used all the correct verbs in the Past Simple and I think it's great that you can reinforce their language learning and they can see how they use it to talk about themselves, to talk about their own weekends. They're using the right language, the right tense. Brilliant! Because it's functional. It's not something out of a book, here this little exercise, do it. No. They're actually using it which is brilliant and that to me is really important so that I can show them look how amazing we're all doing. All these fantastic verbs and the correct regular, irregular form, it's brilliant and that. If you could show them how much progress they're making and how well they're doing and I think it's a bit of a confidence boost really. That's why I do that. (SRI1)

To Katie, using students' sentences as examples and underlining the correct structures in them provided positive feedback to students, boosted their confidence, reinforced their language learning and helped them see how they could use the language to talk about themselves. Moreover, these techniques, Katie explained, showed students that the communication activity had a purpose, it was not a 'waste of time' (SRI1). This might suggest that, to Katie, grammar teaching also added face validity to her teaching. The data also suggest that these beliefs were informed by her previous experience of using the technique multiple times in her grammar teaching practice.

I've been using that for years. (...) I started using it because I thought we're doing this communication practice, let's just make it more constructive. So how can we use it as a tool rather than just a chat? So I wanted them to see that actually you're using it for a reason but you're actually using it in a very constructive way, you're actually learning this while and you're using all the right verbs, right form and so that's why I feedback on the board so they can see it's not a waste of time. It's actually a very good use of their time (SRI1).

Katie's use of exemplification for teaching the differences between past simple and past continuous structures provides further insights. Katie started the lesson on these structures by writing the following story about herself on the board, which she also read out loud:

Yesterday I was walking in the park. The birds were singing and children were playing. As I was walking I heard someone shout my name. I turned around and

fell over. I broke my ankle and had to be helped up. Then I went to the hospital.  
(O2)

Katie's rationale for using a story as an example shows that presenting examples on the board was also a visual tool in her practices. Telling a story and seeing it 'visually' made grammar content easier to understand (SRI2). She also said: '(...) I think it's easier for them to follow, rather than me just speaking at them to actually see it on the board as they would normally read in a magazine or a story book' (SRI2). Katie therefore found giving a story as an example more realistic, more similar to what her students would come across in written discourse. She appeared to believe that using a grammar teaching technique that allowed her students to see grammar structures in use in a realistic way promoted her students' understanding of grammar content. Regarding why she had read the story out loud, Katie shared: '(...) I was trying to demonstrate how we tell a story but how we read a story as well, because those tenses are used for both, reading, writing' (SRI2). By not only writing the story on the board but also reading it out loud Katie felt that she could demonstrate how the above tenses were used in real-life spoken and written discourse. Although Katie thought that using the above techniques certainly benefitted students, she also talked about a possible challenge of using a story as an example.

A: (...) I was wondering, do you see any challenges with using this technique?

K: Yeah, they might not understand the story. (...) I wouldn't have used it if I hadn't had dealt with those tenses in the past. (...) I would have led out to it, gently, we would look at the form, the use, how we write it etcetera, but I thought this was a more interesting way of introducing it because I knew it wasn't completely new to them, we have studied it before. I can see, it could come as quite a shock to those people who have never studied past continuous before or the past simple, but most of them had (SRI2).

Therefore, Katie also believed that using a story as an example could be difficult for students to understand, especially if they had not come across these tenses before. If her students had not been taught these tenses before, Katie would have started by looking at the structure.

*Table 8: Katie's beliefs about exemplification*

<b>GTTs</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTTs</b>	<b>Practice Informs Beliefs</b>
examples converted into a gap fill and error correction activity on the board	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• promoted grammar revision</li> <li>• promoted reflection</li> <li>• added diversity</li> <li>• increased students' motivation</li> </ul>	-
example sentences from students' conversations on the board	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• provided positive feedback to students</li> <li>• boosted their confidence</li> </ul>	Katie used it multiple times, developed through engaging in practice

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reinforced their language learning</li> <li>helped students see how they could use the language to talk about themselves</li> <li>showed students that the communication activity had a purpose</li> </ul>	
example story on the board	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>realistic: similar to how students would see the structure used in written discourse</li> <li>easier to follow (students can see and hear the story at the same time)</li> <li>difficult to follow if sts are not familiar with the structure</li> </ul>	-

#### 5.4.1.2 Beliefs and practice about elicitation, concept and context questions

Katie also frequently used elicitation, concept and context questions in her practices. Her beliefs about these grammar teaching tools are discussed together, because they were usually combined in her practices. In addition, Katie seemed to hold similar beliefs about them.

When teaching the differences between the quantifiers *too much*, *too many* and *too* Katie used concept questions for checking her students' understanding of the grammar points. She wrote example sentences (e.g. *I eat too much chocolate.*) on the board and used concept questions, such as 'What do you think that means? I need to eat more? I need to eat more chocolate?' (O3). In addition, when she used a short story for teaching the differences between past simple and past continuous structures (see section 5.4.1.1), she also used concept questions, such as 'What tense do you think this is?, How do you know that it's the past?' (O2). These questions promoted student involvement and made students think, Katie explained (SRI2). However, she noted that her use of this technique would depend on her students' reactions to it. ('(...) if I was getting nothing back then I would change the way I do it. I wouldn't ask questions, I would then tell them, it would become a different lesson altogether', SRI2). Therefore, Katie's choice of techniques was influenced by the response from her students and her perception of the effectiveness of the techniques.

When teaching the differences between the quantifiers *some* and *any*, Katie wrote sentences on the board (e.g. *Can I have something to eat?*) where *some* and *any* were used correctly, and elicited the grammar rules from her class (O4). Katie's rationale for eliciting grammar rules shows that she held similar beliefs about elicitation and asking concept or context questions.

(...) it's just another way of getting them to remember and (...) thinking about why I'm putting this on the board; because it is not new to them. (...) If it's really new to them, I'll never use that method (SRI4).

She only elicited if she had taught the grammar point before, and she did not think that elicitation was suitable for teaching new grammar content.

Table 9: Katie's beliefs about elicitation, concept and context questions

GTTs	Beliefs about GTT
elicitation, concept and context questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• promoted student involvement</li> <li>• made students think</li> <li>• helped students remember grammar they were taught before, but not suitable for teaching new grammar content</li> </ul>

#### 5.4.1.3 Beliefs and practice about visual grammar teaching techniques

Visual tools were also often used by Katie in her observed grammar teaching practices. Katie's rationales provide insights into why she adopted these techniques for making grammar content accessible. For example, she used a drawing (Figure 5) for explaining the meaning of the phrasal verb *fall off*, because it allowed students 'to visually see what that actual phrasal verb means in this [the given] context' (SRI4).



Figure 5: To fall off

When teaching countable and uncountable nouns and the differences between past simple and past continuous structures, she also used visual tools. In order to explain the differences between countable and uncountable nouns she started the lesson by eliciting what the students already knew about the grammar structure:

K: (...) Try to think what is countable and uncountable. If a noun is countable what can we do? We can?

St E: Count.

K: One, two...Is that all? Ok, two cups, yes? But can I say the coffee inside is countable?

St C: No.

K: What is countable?

St A: The cup.

K: The cup. So, two cups of coffee. The cups are countable, the liquid, the coffee isn't. Ok, there was another with uncountable nouns. Does it have a plural? If I have an uncountable noun (O3).

As discussed above (section 5.4.1.2) Katie often employed concept questions to revise grammar. However, this time, while she was asking the above questions, she picked up two cups of coffee from her students' desks and used them as realia to explain this grammar content to her students. When teaching the differences between past simple and past continuous structures, she wrote a story on the board and used different colours to mark the different structures. Katie's rationales for using colour coding and realia provided further insights:

It's just really quick and it's obvious, there is no misunderstanding, if you use it you can demonstrate it clearly (...) students pick it up really quickly, 'Oh, yeah, that's what she means!' 'Oh, I understand!' It's just really instant and quick and obvious and everything else (SRI3).

It saves a lot of time; because if you see something quickly, you understand quickly, if you see something that is distinguishable like that, it becomes very clear, very quickly, what you are trying to say (SRI2).

Therefore, these visual tools made grammar structures clear to students and also accelerated the process of understanding, Katie believed.

Katie often seemed to draw comparisons between verbal rule explanations and different visual grammar teaching tools. When commenting on her use of verbal rule explanations, she explained that they tended to be boring and tiring for students (SRI6). Therefore, they should be used together with other visual grammar teaching techniques, such as drawings or gestures (SRI4). Her use of a diagram and verbal rule explanations for teaching present perfect is an example of this (Figure 6).

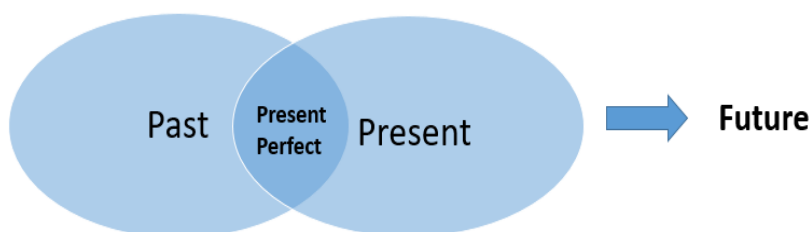


Figure 6: *Present Perfect compared to other tenses*

Katie's rationale for using these techniques together was the following:

(...) if you put this little sign diagram up, you can see how it does link the two together. And I think sometimes a visual clue says so much more than words. To see it and back it up with words as well; but actually see it and then 'I get what she is talking about' (SRI4).

Using a visual grammar teaching technique did not only enhance her students' understanding of grammar content, Katie believed, but also made her rule explanations more effective. However, she explained that simply drawing the diagram on the board was not enough; diagrams had to be explained to students. Thus, Katie believed that combining diagrams and verbal rule explanations led to a better understanding of grammar content as students did not need to visualise her explanation, the diagram did it for them.

Katie's beliefs about the above techniques seemed to be informed by her classroom experiences. Regarding her use of drawings, she explained:

(...) Sometimes if you can draw it immediately students start laughing or they understand really quickly, (...) it's easier (...) sometimes students react well to it and they understand immediately, some students just say 'Don't understand' (SRI4).

Interestingly, in this case Katie had mixed experiences with the grammar teaching technique; however, she seemed to hold only positive beliefs about it. Katie's experiences of teaching the present perfect also seemed to inform her beliefs about using a diagram for making this grammar content accessible.

A: Have you tried [this technique] before?

K: Yeah, loads of times. I use it all the time. (...)

A: Can you evoke anything about the first time when you used it? Maybe how your students reacted?

K: They found it useful, that is why I use it, because of a lot of students.

A: How do you know?

K: They told me, it's a good diagram to explain or to understand. (SRI4)

This suggests that Katie's beliefs about this technique were informed by multiple experiences of teaching. Also, not only using the technique, but also receiving feedback about it from her students seemed to impact on her beliefs. The positive feedback she received made her believe that using diagrams helped students understand grammar content better. Katie's beliefs about using gestures also seemed to be informed by her engagement in teaching grammar. When Katie was asked whether she had used the technique before, she said:

Yeah, often. You've seen me, you've seen what I am like. It's embarrassing. (...) I think it (...) does work because they understand; so it's to get across, (...) I'm trying to get across an idea quickly without any kind of misunderstanding, so they understand, 'Oh that's what she means! Oh, yeah, I understand!', yeah (SRI2).

*Table 10: Katie's beliefs about visual GTTs*

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
visual tools: drawing, diagram, realia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>allowed students to visually see meaning</li> <li>enhanced clarity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Students reacted to them positively (e.g. laughed)</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>accelerated the process of understanding</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>positive feedback from students (when using a diagram)</li> <li>students understood grammar content quickly when she used gestures</li> </ul>
verbal rule explanations and visual GTTs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>led to a better understanding of grammar content when combined</li> </ul>	-

#### 5.4.1.4 Beliefs and practice about verbal and written rule explanations

Katie often used verbal rule explanations, written rule explanations or both together to make grammar content accessible to learners. For instance, when teaching the differences between the quantifiers *too much*, *too many* and *too*, she used both typewritten and verbal rule explanations. Typewritten rule explanations often made grammar content clearer to students, she explained (SRI3). Also, they often contained examples which allowed students to see the rules and how they were applied at the same time. Katie also believed that formal writing was more succinct and clearer than her explanations on the board. It was 'black and white' and it could not be 'misunderstood' (SRI3). Providing typewritten rules to students was often easier and quicker than explaining grammar on the board, Katie argued. In addition, typewritten rule explanations provided a written record for students. Also, on grammar handouts the examples in the rule explanations and the follow up exercises were often related to the same context. Katie's beliefs about the advantages of giving written rule explanations to students was informed by her classroom experiences.

The fact is, sometimes students, I mean students do write down what I put on the board, some students don't; maybe they prefer just to listen. Sometimes they don't write down what's on the board and then I wipe it off and it's gone (SRI3).

Katie also often combined rule explanations with examples. She provided the following rationale for using an example and rule explanations together for teaching past simple, past continuous structures:

(...) I did then go through both tenses and we looked at the form, we looked at how we write the positives and negatives and the question forms for both and we looked at how it functions within that narrative, so even if they were a bit confused and they thought 'I don't understand this', I think the fact that we then went through it, (...) properly, looking at the forms, I think.... you could have a problem if you didn't go back and revise the forms, the structure, the use, the different uses (...) (SRI2).

Katie argued that if she had not gone through how both tenses were used and formed after the story, her students could have had difficulties with understanding these

structures. Therefore, Katie believed that both an example text and rule explanations were necessary to avoid confusion.

*Table 11: Katie's beliefs about rule explanations*

<b>GTTs</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTTs</b>	<b>Practice Informs Beliefs</b>
typewritten rule explanations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• succinct</li> <li>• clear, could be misunderstood</li> <li>• easier and quicker than explaining things on the board</li> <li>• provided a written record for students</li> <li>• often provided examples in context</li> </ul>	students often forgot to write down explanations Katie wrote on the board
verbal rule explanations and examples combined	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• both necessary to avoid confusion</li> <li>• rule explanations helped students understand examples</li> </ul>	-

#### 5.4.1.5 Beliefs and practice about discovering grammar rules

Sometimes Katie used an inductive grammar teaching technique (getting students to discover grammar rules) in her observed practices. For instance, when revising countable and uncountable nouns with her class (O3), she put six incorrect sentences on the board (e.g. *Not much planes fly over France*). Katie told her students to work out in pairs whether the sentences were correct, correct them if necessary and come up with the rules. Katie explained that this activity was not planned; she had included it because she realised that her students had had difficulties with their homework (SRI3). On another occasion, when revising modal verbs with her students, she was also observed using the same technique. Her rationale provides insights into a set of beliefs she seemed to hold about this grammar teaching tool:

(...) I think it's quite challenging to do that, so just really make them think (...). It's just a more challenging way of revising, (...) recapping information that we have looked at the day before. It gets them talking, it gets them into writing, with sentences on the board, visually they can see it (...) it's just more interactive (SRI3).

The extract suggests that, to Katie, this was a more challenging and more interactive way of learning grammar. It made her students think, communicate and write at the same time. Moreover, it was more interesting than simply providing a rule explanation (SRI6). Therefore, Katie believed that this was a tool for promoting thinking and communication (verbal as well as written). Later Katie explained that her students seemed more involved



when she used this technique. This suggests that Katie formed the above beliefs based on her classroom experiences.

*Table 12: Katie's beliefs about discovering rules*

<b>GTT</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTT</b>	<b>Practice Informs Beliefs</b>
getting students to discover grammar rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• challenging</li> <li>• interactive way of learning</li> <li>• made students think, communicate and write at the same time</li> <li>• promoted student involvement</li> </ul>	Katie's students seemed to be more involved

#### 5.4.1.6 Beliefs and practice about making comparisons, creating categories

Comparing and categorising different grammar structures also featured in Katie's observed practices. For example, when teaching past simple structures, she made comparisons between the use of short and long answers (O1). Katie's aim was to introduce students to both structures and highlight the differences in use between them, she explained.

(...) I want them to know that neither is wrong, they are both right but in conversation we tend to use short answers and we never repeat the question. But I didn't want them to think this is wrong, but what I want them to know that there are two ways. And then you will find that people will use whole formal sentences and some won't. (...) I did want to point out to them when we are talking, normal conversation, we wouldn't use a long negative, we would use a short (SRI1).

In another lesson on modal verbs she compared different modal verbs and organised them into semantic categories. Katie started this lesson (O5) by eliciting example sentences from the listening exercises that the class had done in the previous lesson (about ordering food at a restaurant). She wrote the example sentences on the board, elicited their function and categorised them according their function. She underlined the modal verbs in the sentences and provided verbal and written rule explanations. She also talked about the register of each modal verb. This is the picture of what she had on the board:

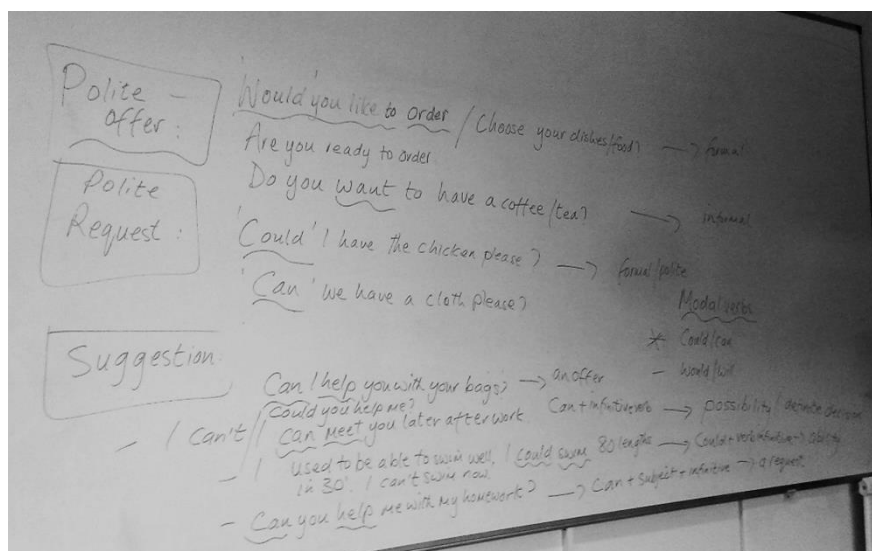


Figure 7: Modal verbs on the board

When I asked Katie why she had categorised modal verbs according to their function, she explained that putting this categorisation on the board ‘changes the pace of the class’ (SRI5). It made teaching these modal verbs quicker, she added, because the students responded to it immediately (SRI5). In addition, Katie believed that if her students saw modal verbs categorised, they would not find them confusing (SRI5). They would see that one modal verb could have more than one function, which would make using these structures easier for them (SRI5). Katie’s beliefs about using categorisation for grammar teaching purposes was informed by her previous experiences of teaching grammar.

A: (...) Can you remember what actually made you come up with this explanation, what made you categorize them, how did your explanation evolve?

K: Cause the students seemed to understand it better. (...) A lot of what I do is based on the feedback I get from the students and how quickly I think they understand. (...) I think the clearer you make things the better. A lot of what I do is because it makes it easier for the students or I get a good response and they seem to understand. They get the idea much quicker than if you just do it another way (SRI5).

This shows how receiving positive feedback from learners impacted on the development of Katie’s beliefs about this technique.

Katie also categorised modal verbs according their register to enhance learners’ understanding of them. This categorisation gave students more sense of how the grammar point was used in everyday conversations, she believed (SRI5). This belief was also informed by her classroom experiences:

(...) It was because this very instance... I’ve been teaching quite a long time and I do have, I have had the experience of students saying to me: ‘Why can’t I say this way?’ or: ‘I thought it meant this or you could only use it this way’. (...) So it just evolved from teaching (SRI5).

As Katie experienced that her students had difficulties using modal verbs in conversations, she felt that she had to use a grammar teaching technique that provided them with guidance.

Table 13: Katie's beliefs about making comparisons and creating semantic categories

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
comparisons	highlighted differences	-
creating semantic categories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>accelerated teaching</li> <li>students responded to it immediately</li> <li>students found modal verbs' structure less confusing</li> </ul>	students understood it better
categorising according to register	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>gave students a sense of how the structure is used in everyday conversations</li> </ul>	reflection on classroom experiences

#### 5.4.1.7 Beliefs and practice about using synonyms, formulas

Katie also held beliefs about using synonyms and formulas in her grammar teaching practices that seemed to inform her use of these tools. When teaching countable and uncountable nouns, for example, she elicited synonyms from her students in the following way:

K: Well done! *So there are always plenty of buses*, yes? Remember, we can use *plenty of* with both countable and uncountable, yeah? If there are plenty of buses, is that a small amount?

St A: No?

K: Give me another quantifier to replace *plenty of*. What can I use instead?

St C: *A lot of*.

K: Well done, a lot of. Good, good. (O3)

Her rationale for using this technique was the following:

(...) It gives better understanding. It doesn't tie them down to one way of saying something (...) or trying to remember 'Oh, this is what I need to remember, this goes with this'. It just means, it gives them options, and I think it's good because it makes them realise 'Oh, okay, so I can say this, I can set it up, and I don't lose the meaning' (...) (SRI3).

Therefore, using synonyms in grammar teaching showed students that they had different options for expressing the same meaning, Katie believed. In addition, it enabled them to use the language more creatively. However, sometimes having too many choices could be confusing to students, she noted (SRI3).

When teaching the differences between the different types of past simple questions she used formulas, such as ASI (auxiliary, subject, infinitive) and QWASI (questions word, auxiliary, subject, infinitive), to help her students remember the structure (O1). Katie provided the following rationale for using this grammar teaching tool:

A: (...) Have you used this before?

K: Loads of times, it's something that I've been using for years. And it's in one of our books, Is it New English File or Headway? They use these formulas as just a really good way, quick way if you are not sure remember this formula (...) (SRI1).

Therefore, this was a time-efficient way of teaching grammar structures, Katie believed. Katie's classroom experiences seemed to inform this belief. In addition, her rationale shows the impact of an external influential factor, the course book content, which will be discussed in section 5.4.3.

*Table 14: Katie's beliefs about synonyms and formulas*

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
Synonyms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>gave students options for expressing the same meaning</li> <li>enabled them to use the language more creatively</li> <li>could be confusing</li> </ul>	
Formulas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>quick way of making students remember grammar structures</li> </ul>	Multiple experiences of using it in her practices.

## 5.4.2 Internal Influential factors and practice

When looking at the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their grammar teaching practices, I also took into consideration the impact of internal influential factors on the belief-practice relationship. Katie's rationales for using different grammar teaching tools highlight that her classroom decisions were often influenced by other internal influential factors than her beliefs about GTTs, mainly by broader pedagogical beliefs. The following sections provide an overview of the internal influential factors that impacted on the relationship between Katie's beliefs about GTTs and her observed practices.

### 5.4.2.1 Beliefs about grammar learning and grammar teaching

Beliefs about grammar learning and teaching often featured together in Katie's rationales for using different grammar teaching tools. She frequently emphasized the importance of understanding the meaning of grammar structures when learning grammar. Her

rationale for using context questions is an example of this. ('What's the point in learning the grammar if you don't understand what it means?', SRI3). She thus conceptualised grammar learning as learning both the structure and the meaning of grammar points. This probably explains why enhancing her students' understanding of grammar seemed to be so important to Katie. The following extracts are examples from her rationales for using different grammar teaching tools:

'(...) the one thing I wanted desperately for the students to understand that with phrasal verbs the verbs can change in all the tenses' (SRI4).

(...) maybe I cover all basis. Maybe I just do too much (...) but I just want to double check (...) maybe I spend too much time doing one thing (...). Maybe that's bit of an overkill. I just need to know that they understand, and (...), they do. It's important to me to know that they understand (SRI3).

(...) I wanted to make sure they understood the difference between using these structures; why would you use *might* instead of *going to*? Why would you use *I'm thinking of* instead of you know *I'm seeing*? (SRI6)

To Katie, increasing her students' understanding of grammar was a very important part of her role as a teacher. When she experienced that her students did not understand a grammar point, she often engaged in grammar teaching. This was the case, for example, when she realised that her students did not understand *too*, *too much* and *too many*:

The day before in the class we had lots of confusion with *too much*, *too many*. (...) I could see 'oh, I'm going to have to clear this up' and that's why I decided to extent it, to include that, so that there is no misunderstanding. Because one or two of them were using it the day before but obviously in the wrong context. And they were using it in the wrong contexts, so that's why I asked 'What do you think this means?' *Too much*, *too many*, is it less or more or whatever because they were using it in the wrong context the day before; and what does *too* mean, yes? (SRI3)

As discussed above (section 5.3.1), keeping an equal balance between grammar and communication was very important to Katie. In her rationales for using grammar teaching tools that promoted communication (e.g. analysing sentences in pairs, eliciting) she often articulated this belief.

(...) use through communication (...) So that they [students] use it really quickly. And if they use it really quickly and they see this, the reminder of the structure, (...) hopefully it will stay and they will remember, becomes easier to use (SRI1).

Katie seemed to believe that using grammar teaching techniques that allowed students to communicate and reminded them of the correct structure on the board helped students remember structures and put their knowledge into practice.

## 5.4.2.2 Beliefs about students' knowledge of grammar and grammar learning

Katie also held beliefs about students' grammar learning in relation to particular grammar structures. For instance, she provided the following rationale for comparing different past simple structures:

(...) So hopefully remember (...) the two main components especially for your negatives and questions. The fact that you do need two verbs but you know obviously for the positive you don't need the auxiliary and that's the thing a lot of students forget (SRI1).

Katie's belief about her students' grammar learning (that students tend to get confused about using auxiliary verbs when they learn the past simple) informed her classroom decisions. This belief also appeared to be informed by Katie's previous grammar teaching practices. When Katie was asked about how she formed her beliefs about her students' grammar learning, she answered the following:

A: (...) You just mentioned that they tend to forget this auxiliary and main verb thing. How do you know that they tend to forget it?

K: Because that's what they do. When I get feedback from them, some of them, not all of them, when I get feedback from them. They don't remember. (SRI1)

Engaging in teaching practice and receiving feedback from her students thus informed her beliefs about student's grammar learning.

In her rationales for using different grammar teaching techniques Katie often mentioned what she thought her students knew about certain grammar structures. For example, Katie shared the following about her students' knowledge of *some* and *any*:

(...) Because it wasn't the first time that's happened, and then not with the same students, but with quite a few students. They do guess the positive and negative (...) when it comes to, not just *some* and *any* but all the permutations, *something*, *somewhere*, *anything*, *anywhere*, (...) I wanted them to see that it is all linked, it doesn't just mean *some* and *any* are used in the positive and the negative forms, it means all the permutations of *some* and *any*. (...) it carries on through to all those words as well, it doesn't just apply to *some* and *any*. And sometimes they don't make that link (SRI4).

Therefore, multiple occurrences of the same grammar error made by many students indicated to Katie that students did not know how *something*, *somewhere*, *anything* and *anywhere* were used correctly. When commenting on teaching phrasal verbs, she explained that they 'tend to present problems to the students, they don't really understand what they are' (SRI4). In addition, she believed that her students did not understand that 'one phrasal verb (...) can change depending on what tense' is used (SRI4). Katie held similar beliefs about her students' knowledge of modal verbs. When she took the CELTA course, she had no idea what modal verbs were; therefore, probably her students did not have much knowledge of them either, she explained (SRI5). She added that her students might have been introduced only to the most obvious ones at

elementary level (SRI5). These examples suggest that Katie held beliefs about her students' knowledge of grammar and grammar learning which could impact on her use of grammar teaching tools in her grammar teaching practices.

#### 5.4.2.3 Belief about grammar content

In Katie's rationales there are several examples of how her beliefs about different grammar structures influenced her selection and use of grammar teaching tools. For instance, when using realia for teaching the difference between countable and uncountable nouns, she shared the following:

So it was getting across the concept of countable and uncountable. Sometimes it's really difficult because I'm trying to get these students to realize that liquids in itself, liquids, oils, coffee, tea is uncountable because you can't... It's getting across that sort of concept, so we would kind of often say 'Oh, you know *a cup of coffee* is countable' but actually, is the coffee countable? It's not the coffee that's countable, it's what it's served in, that's countable. So that's why I tend to use that example because the cups are the countable, the vessel, the container is always the countable part, but the liquid inside, isn't. (...) (SRI3).

Katie considered understanding the differences in meaning between countable and uncountable nouns challenging; therefore, she decided to use realia to illustrate this. Her use of another visual grammar teaching tool (a drawing for teaching the phrasal verb *fall off*) was also informed by her belief about phrasal verbs. When providing a rationale, she considered phrasal verbs unique because they could mean several things, she said (SRI4). Similarly, when using a diagram for explaining present perfect structures she referred to beliefs about the grammar point in her rationale. She thought about the present perfect as 'a difficult concept' that 'links the past to now', she explained (SRI4). Interestingly, this belief seemed to be informed by Katie's own experience learning the present perfect during her teacher training. She considered this tense very difficult until she found the above diagram in a course book, she said, and then it 'suddenly clicked' (SRI4). These examples suggest that when Katie considered understanding the meaning of a grammar structure difficult she resorted to visual grammar teaching techniques, such as drawings, diagrams and realia.

Katie's rationale for using concept questions also showed the influence of her beliefs about grammar content. In the following extract she provided a rationale for using concept questions while the class was checking a grammar activity:

(...) I was checking their understanding (...). And I do that a lot with quantifiers, 'cause sometimes you use *a lot of*, we use *a little water* or *I'll have a little sugar*, what does that mean, *a little?* Or (...) *a lot of*; *there is a lot of people*, what does that mean, *a lot of people?* Is it a small amount, is it hundreds? (...) what kind of quantity are we talking about? Talking about *some*, what is *some*? So that they get a good idea of the amount, the quantity (SRI3).

Katie often used concept questions to check her students' understanding when she had taught quantifiers because she believed that this grammar content could be confusing to students. The following extract provided further evidence:

(...) There is so much confusion, students make so many mistakes with quantifiers because they're not sure if I can use it with this, or can I use it with that; like there are *much*... The other day I had, there was *We spent much time in the cinema*, or something like that. I know *cinema* [she meant *time*] is uncountable, but we don't use *much*. They don't know that, but that's because I keep telling that you can use *some* with some nouns, but then can you use *much* in the positive sentence? Can you use it in a negative? Can you use it in a question? That's where the confusion lies (SRI3).

Katie's belief about her students' understanding of quantifiers was informed by her previous experiences of teaching this particular group of students.

#### 5.4.2.4 Beliefs about learning and teaching

In her rationales Katie also often talked about how she conceptualised learning and teaching in general. When providing a rationale for using a large variety of grammar teaching techniques to teach past tenses she said:

How are they gonna learn if I just say this is, put it on the board, you learn it. That is terrible. It's not teaching. Teaching is all about presenting information in an okay, not just informative way I hope it's what I do. But the interesting way, people don't learn you know by just saying putting on the board and here you go, just learn that (SRI1).

Katie's use of GTTs were informed by her beliefs about teaching: teaching has to be informative and interesting. They were also informed by Katie's belief about learning: learning does not happen if teachers just present information about grammar on the board and tell students to learn it. The influence of Katie's beliefs about learning and teaching on her practices was also supported by the data from the scenario-based interview. She provided a rationale for suggesting the use of a variety of grammar teaching techniques to teach a grammar point in scenario three:

(...) you can be told lots of things, sitting in a class and just write what's on the board over and over again (...) you can learn something parrot fashion. I'll put lots of things on the board, you write it down, go away, learn it. But I don't think you learn like that, (...) In my day that's probably what a lot of teachers did. (...) It's not interesting, it's not interactive, it's not fun, what are you doing, you're just regurgitating information, your students write it down, go away, off you go, learn it, come back next day learn something else but that isn't learning. That's not teaching either. There got to be lots of interaction, lots of I think practice, practical work, speaking (SBI).

Her comments on using GTTs that promoted communication in the classroom provide further evidence.

Silence in a class, to me that's not teaching. If you're not speaking, you're not practicing your English, you're not communicating with your partner, you are not



communicating with your teacher, what's the point? If you're sitting there silently, trying to work things out in your head, that's not helping anyone. So for me, it's just something I decided that I would do because I don't like silence. I never liked silence in my lessons (SRI3).

In Katie's understanding there was a link between communication and learning. She seemed to believe that if her students were sitting silently, they were not learning at all. This also suggests that, to Katie, engaging in communication facilitated learning.

Katie's comments on her use of exemplification, elicitation and error correction together provide further insights into her beliefs about learning. The purpose of the activity (gap filling on the board) was to revise the grammar structure, she said. She had chosen these grammar teaching techniques because she expected her students to be able to recall and use the structure that they had learnt the week before (SRI1). This suggests that Katie's belief about her students' learning (that students should be able to remember what she taught them a week before) appeared to impact on her selection and use of grammar teaching techniques. Katie's rationale for using concept questions also revealed another belief about learning that impacted on her selection and use of this technique.

(...) so for me it's better that I get them to talk to me, and I think it's a better way of learning, I think you learn more if you are the one who is having to find the information and give me the information, rather than me telling you (SRI2).

Therefore, Katie believed that learning was more effective if students needed to find out information for themselves, than when they received information.

Katie also held beliefs about learning styles, which featured in her rationales for using a variety of grammar teaching techniques concurrently. The following extracts are examples of this:

K: (...) some students work better if they can think of a formula, it's just another tool.

A: How do you know this, that they work better?

K: I didn't. I don't, I'm just giving them another option. (...) I always give it as another option, another way of remembering but I'm not saying everyone will remember these formulas; some will, some won't (SRI1).

(...) you're trying to cater for all students' ways of learning. Some people like seeing diagrams and they learn effectively by looking at diagrams and it's easy for them.

(...) some students think 'Don't know why she is doing that, it doesn't mean anything to me'; (...) for them there is a different way of learning, it's just catering for all the different ways of learning, just to give them different options (SRI4).

Katie believed in learning styles and her way of enacting this belief was by using a variety of different grammar teaching tools for teaching one grammar structure. She also noted that this way the grammar point was more likely 'to stick' and the students had more chances of practising it (SRI6).

#### 5.4.2.5 Belief about languages and language learning

Katie's rationale for adopting some of the grammar teaching tools above shows that her beliefs about languages and language learning also impacted on her use of GTTs. When using sentences from students' conversations as examples and underlined grammar structures in them, she explained:

(...) If you're gonna teach a language, you got to relate it to real life. Because they are going to use it in real life, (...) when they talk about their weekend, it's something that happened to them in real life and I think it's important to relate it to them and their own experiences (...) (SRI1).

Katie's classroom decisions were influenced by her belief about language learning: language learning must relate to real life and thus be meaningful to students. Katie's rationale for asking students to provide a synonym for *plenty of* revealed a belief about languages and language learning which seemed to impact on her use of grammar teaching tools. 'Language is very fluid', Katie explained, and there were many different options for expressing the same meaning in every language (SRI3). Katie believed that, as a teacher, she should enable students to 'manipulate' language and not to use it rigidly (SRI3). Therefore, to Katie, her role was not only teaching students the course content, but also enabling them to use the language in real-life discourse.

#### 5.4.2.6 Belief about promoting self-esteem and accuracy

Katie's rationale for getting students to discover grammar rules shed light on why she decided organise students into pairs:

(...) always with a partner (...) it gives them more confidence as well 'cause maybe they're not a 100% sure, but (...) one if they've got someone else to talk about, and two, they see that everyone else is having similar problems, and we're all talking about it, it's not something that (...) they kept to themselves. I think its jut a really good way of giving them a bit more confidence to speak and actually (...) talk about the grammar in a more interesting way (SRI3).

Katie believed that pair work made her students more confident to talk about grammar. Her belief in promoting self-esteem also featured in the scenario-based interview data:

(...) So I put a sentence on the board in its auxiliary form and a sentence in its *to be* form. And they have to decide, (...) which one I'm going to use? Always in pairs, especially if they're not very confident, the one or two that, (...) are not confident we work in pairs then we have feedback (SBI).

Katie's beliefs about promoting accuracy also featured in her rationales. She provided the following rationale for teaching quantifiers in the middle of a grammar activity about the present perfect:

(...) I'm always trying to do it at the moment, because if I leave it, then it doesn't become relevant. See if we're tackle it now, while we are thinking about it, it's

relevant, if we leave it, and do it the next day, I think 'It doesn't have to do with anything'. So I try to do it there and then, because I knew it wasn't gonna take long, I didn't think it'd take long (SRI4).

Katie strongly believed that errors had to be corrected when they occurred. If errors were not corrected straight away, they lost their relevance, she thought.

#### 5.4.2.7 Katie's preferred learning style

There is evidence in the data of the impact of another internal influential factor: Katie's learning preferences. For instance, Katie's rationale for using a form of error correction (getting her students to correct incorrect sentences on the board) suggests that her use of this technique could have been influenced by her learning preferences ('(...) it's just something I do because for me it works. For me if I was a student that's what I would I want, that's what I would like to see', SRI1). Katie thus believed that a technique that could promote her own grammar learning could promote her students' grammar learning as well.

#### 5.4.3 External influential factors and practice

Although internal influential factors seemed to dominate Katie's rationales for using the above GTTs, the data provide evidence of the impact of some external influential factors too.

When commenting on her use of realia her rationale shed light on the impact of another external influential factor on her use of this technique: the availability of objects.

A: Can you see any challenges of using realia for grammar teaching?

K: Well yeah, having the stuff here to use. Sometimes it's not readily available in which case you've got to think of another way of explaining something that is difficult, but not using the objects. When you use objects, it is so much easier, again, people understand it really quickly, because it's physical you can see it. If you have to explain something like that in a different way, it can be (...) just more difficult (SRI3).

Therefore, Katie was often unable to use this technique as the objects she needed were not always available.

Furthermore, her rationale for using formulas (e.g. ASI, QWASI) revealed the impact of another influential factor on her practices: the content of course books. In the following extract Katie explains why she used formulas in her practices:

A: (...) have you used this before?

K: Loads of times, it's something that I've been using for years. And it's in one of our books, Is it New English File or Headway? They use these formulas as just a really good way, quick way if you are not sure remember this formula (...) (SRI1).

Katie started using formulas in her practices because they were in the course book she used. However, it is important to note that Katie had been using these formulas for a long time, which suggests that her beliefs about this technique were also confirmed by positive classroom experiences.

## Chapter VI. Josey

### 6.1 Background

#### 6.1.1 Personal and Prior Educational History

##### 6.1.1.1 Learning at home

Josey's first memories of English language learning came from her childhood, before starting any formal education. She was always corrected by her parents, who 'spoke correctly', Josey explained; therefore, she did not need to be corrected by her teachers (BI). She felt that she had received very good language education from her parents.

##### 6.1.1.2 Primary and secondary school

When she was at school, Josey explained, English grammar was not taught to pupils. If students made a grammar mistake, they were simply corrected and never provided with a grammar explanation. They learnt about English spelling and did practice exercises, Josey recalled. They were often tested on spelling, she said, and they had to memorise the spelling of words for homework. She described her learning experience in the following way:

(...) the words were written on the board and we copied them into books and we took them home and we learnt them (...) I suppose by recognition and also by the syllables (...) for example the word *comfortable* even though we pronounce it /'kʌmfətəbəl/ I learnt it (...) by saying com-for-ta-ble. That's how I learnt how to spell it. So words were broken down into (...) syllables (...) we learnt just parrot fashion as well. (...) So if a certain word was spelt differently to what you'd expect it to be spelt, you just had to learn it (...) But also I remember my mother and (...) the teachers (...) making the signs of the different parts of the words on the board as well (BI).

Josey had developed her English grammar and pronunciation through correction, she said. Her reading and spelling had developed gradually, she further explained, and after a while 'everything just fell into place' (BI).

Josey learnt foreign languages (French and German) between the age of 11 and 16, until she took her O-level exams (equivalent to today's GCSEs). She found learning foreign languages very difficult and confusing, she said, because she had to learn grammar. If she had learnt English grammar before, she said, probably foreign language learning would have been easier for her. Regarding the techniques of grammar teaching, Josey remembered that her teachers put examples on the board and the students had to write down verb conjugations into their notebooks. She described her foreign language

learning as ‘parrot fashion learning (...) going home and just learning it’ (BI). Josey also remembered learning vocabulary and speaking. Her teacher often did demonstrations or used realia for teaching vocabulary, she said. In addition, her teacher often made students repeat sentences in front of the class. They were often tested on their knowledge of grammar in the form of flash tests where they had to ‘write (...) about something using the grammar that (...) [they] had learnt’, Josey recalled (BI). Out of the above teaching techniques Josey found ‘parrot fashion learning’ the most effective at that age, she said:

A: (...) You mentioned quite a few techniques (...). How effective did you find those techniques back then? (...)

J: I think when you’re at that age I suppose the parrot fashion learning. When I was 11, 12, 13... It did go in. (...) I did learn that just by the sounds. Je voudrais is I have. So you would just learn, yes. (...) so parrot fashion learning I think and repeating sentences. One of the teachers quite often saying a phrase and we would have to repeat it and I think those did go in. We learnt those (BI).

#### 6.1.1.3 The French exchange

While Josey was studying French at school she had the opportunity to take part in a French exchange program. She described it as being ‘very beneficial’ (BI). Reflecting on this experience, she said that if she had stayed in France longer, she could have ‘picked the language up’ (BI). She explained: ‘everything is in context when you learnt it that way. Whereas in the classroom it’s a little bit dry (BI)’. This shows that Josey’s pre-training experiences might have impacted on her belief development.

*Table 15: Influence of PLLEs on Josey’s beliefs*

Occurrence	GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Other beliefs
Secondary School Foreign language lessons	Repeating sentences after the teacher	Memorable	-
French exchange program	-	-	Language learning in the classroom is not as interesting as learning it in natural context

#### 6.1.2 Professional Education

In order to complete her formal teacher training Josey enrolled in a nine-month CELTA course. The course included lectures (once a week), eight observed teaching practices, eight teaching observations and written assignments.

Josey found learning about grammar very challenging.

(...) I was like fish out of water. (...) I felt I was sinking and not swimming, because remember, I hadn't learnt grammar at school (...) I had nine months to learn how to teach (...) but I also had to learn as much English grammar as possible in order for me to be able to teach it. So it was a very difficult nine months for me because I was like a rabbit in headlights. (...) I didn't know quite what'd hit me (BI).

She had to learn grammar at home, on her own, she explained. She also had to complete written assignments. She said: '(...) I seem to remember for me it [the grammar assignment] was the most difficult. (...) Trying to explain the sentences to break down the sentences into grammar, the forms' (BI). Although she found written assignments challenging, Josey said that they helped her grammar learning. When she started teaching grammar, she 'threw [herself] in it at the deep end', she recalled (BI). She felt that initially she was 'probably one step ahead of the students' (BI). Her knowledge of grammar developed gradually through teaching herself after completing the CELTA course, she explained.

As mentioned above, completing eight observed teaching practices was part of the course. In most of these lessons Josey taught at lower levels (elementary or pre-intermediate), she said; therefore, her lessons were 'a lot more vocabulary based' (BI). She used a lot of realia in the classroom, she said. The ESOL course was 'very structured', Josey recalled, and she had a file full of ESOL materials that she 'needed to cover' (BI). However, she could not remember the techniques she used very well. She might have given examples and explanations on the board, she said. In addition, she might have used demonstrations (acting structures out) for providing context. Josey also mentioned that probably she gave handouts to her students and 'explained the sheet to them' (BI).

Josey noted that observing other teachers was the most beneficial for her.

That was much more educational for me with my CELTA training, watching their techniques. That's where I learnt (...) I thought to myself I like that, I like what she is doing there (...) I sort of took little things from different teachers that I particularly liked. I think (...) I remember those things, I hold on to those things and hopefully that will make my teaching style good (BI).

The passage shows that, to Josey, these observations were more beneficial than any other content of the course. She appeared to find this way of learning about teaching memorable. She could also recall the grammar teaching techniques that the teachers used. They used to do a lot of 'writing on the board (...) would then come and sit among the students and explain, maybe just articulate' and also provided explanations (about what was on the board and on handouts), Josey said (BI). She remembered that the teachers tried 'to make it as real as possible for them [the students]' (BI). Their grammar

teaching was characterised by presenting language in context with 'less technical expressions' (BI). They used the ESOL course book, Josey said, where the students learnt about language in real life situations (e.g. at the restaurant, transport). Both grammar and vocabulary were presented in these particular contexts.

When I asked Josey about how attending the CELTA course impacted on the way she teaches now, she explained:

J: (...) I took a lot of mannerisms. (...) I felt that there was quite a rapport between some of the teachers and some of the students. They had a style that connected (...) with the students and I took that on and I thought yes, that's the way forward for me. I liked that style just to be among the students (...) to really try and explain a grammatical point or anything for that matter in... situations, in context that they can relate to (...).

A: (...) Is there anything that you actually picked up during your CELTA, and you use in your grammar teaching now? (...)

J: No. nothing technical. No, it is but my approach perhaps. I did gain a lot of ideas with regards to my approach to what I teach from the observations during the CELTA (BI).

The passage shows that the CELTA course impacted on Josey's approach to teaching. Observing how experienced teachers taught appeared to impact on the development of her beliefs about the student-teacher relationship in the classroom and about the importance of teaching language in context.

*Table 16: Impact of professional development on Josey's beliefs*

Occurrence	GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Other beliefs
CELTA course teaching practice (teaching ESOL courses)	rule explanations on the board, examples, demonstrations for creating context (acting structures out), verbal explanations of the content of handouts	-	-
CELTA course teaching observations	Verbal and written rule explanations, presenting grammar in context (in real life situations)	Grammar should be contextualised in situations which are meaningful to the students	Importance of creating rapport between students and the teacher



## 6.2 Teaching Experience

### 6.2.1 Experiences as a novice teacher

Josey started teaching English a few months after she obtained her CELTA qualification. After the course she 'was a little unsure', she said (BI). She explained: '(...) I knew I had a lot of learning still to do, but I thought I had to make a start somewhere' (BI).

After the CELTA course Josey taught one-to-one, business English classes. She taught Japanese adults, who were the employees of a local company. She used a business English course book, where English was presented in real life situations. Regarding grammar teaching, she recalled:

(...) the business English books tend to merge all the different grammar forms together and you don't dwell an awful lot on the grammar, (...) it's just highlighted. Perhaps you're doing (...) a business English lesson and (...) on that particular day you are teaching (...) ways to delegate work for example. (...) So that would include polite ways of asking or impolite ways of asking or requesting or even suggesting and then within those expressions that we use there would be different forms of grammar that would only be reinforced or taught if that particular student needed it. Because sometimes (...) with business English students, they are familiar with the grammar, they've done it at school, now they are working in a working environment (SRI1).

Josey mainly taught grammar in business-related contexts. Regarding her use of grammar teaching techniques, she recalled using error correction for teaching grammar. She explained: 'as a teacher if I can identify few grammatical mistakes as we are going then I will correct them and reinforce and practice a little bit' (SRI1).

Later on to increase her teaching hours Josey taught English to teenagers at a summer school. The course was 'very vocabulary, communication, [and] games focused', she said (BI). In relation to the structure of the course she recalled that 'the whole day was structured into grammar, vocabulary and communication in the afternoon' (SRI1). 'There were a lot of activities (...) snakes and ladders and answering', Josey recalled (BI). She found intensive teaching very beneficial, she said, because she 'was constantly learning' (BI). She described this learning experience in the following way:

(...) So from the word go! that I started teaching I was to begin with maybe only one step ahead of the students, but that's how I learnt. And because I'd learnt the teaching techniques because I'd observed those (...) techniques on my CELTA and learnt if you like how to teach. But I mean a lot of it is your own personality as well. (...) so I learnt that all I needed to do was learn what I was teaching. (...) And I was able to teach it to my students because I had the technique and little by little I could (...) build it all up and there is a nice little library in my head now (BI).

Josey felt confident about her pedagogical content knowledge after the CELTA course. However, her knowledge of the subject matter developed gradually, through engaging in

teaching practice and learning on her own. The quotation also sheds some light on Josey's beliefs about teaching. In Josey's understanding learning teaching not only meant taking part in professional teacher training or learning teaching techniques, it also had a 'personality' component (BI).

### 6.2.2 Working at Tower Language School

According to Josey, Tower Language School was very relaxed, just like a family. She described it as 'a very happy, friendly, approachable, helpful school' (BI). The students liked this relaxed atmosphere, Josey said. They loved coming to school, and the school received good feedback from them. There was 'always a positive atmosphere', Josey said (BI).

Josey described teaching at Tower Language School in the following way: 'the quality of our teaching is good and the students seem to learn' (BI). The school did not promote any particular style of teaching, she explained. Their style of teaching was very relaxed and informal, but they did not 'sacrifice quality for... being too relaxed' (BI). They followed a set syllabus, which they received weekly from the director studies. Josey said that she found this useful because of the following: 'I know for an intermediate student ... they need to cover these particular topics and each lesson is broken down into the grammar that you're going to teach' (BI). Teachers could use both text books (mainly English File) and other teaching materials to cover the syllabus, Josey explained. It was up to teachers how much they wanted to cover each lesson, and how they wanted to teach the syllabus content. Josey said that the director of studies also supported their professional development. Although the financial resources were limited, he encouraged the teachers to sign up for an online teacher training course.

Regarding grammar teaching, Josey explained that grammar was part of every chapter they covered. She described how she covered a recent topic with her students:

(...) Since the very beginning of the book we were revising the present simple and continuous in action, on action verbs in the context of food and eating and cooking. So to begin with, we covered a lot of vocabulary and the students had a sheet with lots of photographs of different foods and we had speaking activities, so pair work asking each other what sort of food you like? Perhaps do some pronunciation (...) Listening exercise, reading exercise and it might be later (...) that we (...) look at the grammar because... then you might go back to the previous page and say... point out the grammar points that... (...) within the reading for example, taking them back to some sentences that they read and (...) this is why then highlight the grammar points and why we use the Present Simple and Continuous (BI).

Josey taught vocabulary and did reading, speaking and listening activities before teaching grammar. The grammar point was introduced in a situational context (food and cooking) and the structure was pointed out in a textual context (within a reading). This suggests that Josey's approach to grammar teaching was characterised by introducing a context first and showing the students how the grammar point was used within that context.

Regarding testing, she said that her students could take language exams (e.g. IELTS) if they wanted to, but there were no compulsory tests or exams. She added that testing had no effect on her teaching because none of the students had requested to take an exam to date in her intermediate group. She explained that students normally prepared for language exams when they moved to the advanced class (BI).

### 6.2.3 Overall experience with language students

Josey had mainly been teaching adult, mixed nationality groups since she joined Tower Language School. When I asked her to talk about the advantages and challenges of teaching mixed nationality, adult groups, she immediately compared them to secondary school students she had taught previously. While secondary school students 'consider a supply teacher a holiday', Josey said, adult students 'want to learn' (BI). 'They're here for a reason, they paid for it themselves', 'they know it's going to be their future' she added (BI). Josey also seemed to hold beliefs about why adult, immigrant students join language schools.

(...) They come to English language school to integrate, to integrate with other students, to practice speaking English, (...) to develop the rapport, they feel that they belong, to give them confidence and help them towards (...) the road to fluency if you like (BI).

To students, Josey believed, the language school was not only a place for developing language skills, but also a place that creates a sense of belonging and developed students' confidence.

Josey found teaching at beginner or elementary level challenging, she said. She explained: 'no matter what you say, they don't understand you' (BI). However, she did not face the same challenges at advanced level, she said.

*Table 17: Josey's beliefs and accumulated grammar teaching experience*

Occurrence	GTTs	Belief about GTTs	Other beliefs
Experiences as a novice teacher	-	-	<u>Belief about teaching:</u> learning

			teaching does not involve learning only teaching techniques and the subject matter. It has a personality component.
Tower Language school	Teaching grammar in a situational context and within text.	-	-

### 6.3 Beliefs about grammar, grammar learning and grammar teaching

#### 6.3.1 Beliefs about grammar

Josey appeared to find defining grammar difficult. She never had to think about this before, she said (BI). After careful consideration she explained that in her understanding the role of grammar was ‘expressing time (...) and events’ (BI). She further explained:

(...) we use grammar to convey a particular period in time (...) so we do need grammar in order to be able to fully explain ourselves. Regarding what timeframe we are talking about (...) it is all part of communicating and conveying (...) the message what you’re trying to say to make the other person understand. Put it into a timeframe and to develop a story (BI).

Josey thus described grammar as a type of procedural knowledge that enables us to communicate successfully. Interestingly, she only refers to expressing ‘time and events’, which might mean that she associates grammar with verb tenses.

#### 6.3.2 Belief about grammar learning

Josey said that learning grammar was ‘necessary’ because

(...) in order to convey your message in order to tell the story, in order to have a conversation, you need to be able to put it into different contexts whether you’re about talking now, the future or the past (...) there are rules unfortunately (BI).

In addition, she said that if ‘in a particular country (...) you want everybody to understand everyone else, you do have to learn these rules’ (BI). To Josey, learning grammar is important because it enables people to communicate clearly and effectively.

Regarding the relationship between grammar and different skill areas, Josey explained:

(...) And I think if you are learning a specific grammar point, I think it’s important to do all the skills, not just learn it to speak it, to use it, to listen to it, being used and maybe finish up with a little activity like that where they can use it (BI).

Grammar learning included learning and applying rules; therefore, it had both declarative and procedural dimensions, Josey argued.

### 6.3.3 Beliefs about grammar teaching

Josey described what grammar teaching meant to her in the following way:

(...) It's a challenge and I enjoy it and I get quite enthusiastic, (...) first of all I teach the rules. (...) That's the rule and then why? (...) I build it, yes. And then example sentences. (...) I want them to understand, and I get a lot of pleasure when they do understand. I want them to understand why they're learning and the relevance of it. (...) we don't just learn the grammar points, (...) for the sake of learning them, we're learning them for a reason. So I like explaining to the students and demonstrating to them why we're learning this and put it into context. The context that they can picture and understand, (...) So it's very important to me and I really (...) I gain a lot from it (...) (BI).

Josey considered teaching grammar an important element of her pedagogical practice. She described her role as mainly being a transmitter of grammar knowledge who provided rule explanations and gave examples. In her understanding the aim of her grammar teaching was to teach her students both declarative and procedural knowledge about grammar.

Josey also stated beliefs about what kind of activities should be used for teaching grammar in the classroom. She believed that students should do 'something constructive in class' (BI). Josey did not consider doing grammar worksheets a constructive way of spending class time, she said. She further explained:

(...) What's important in class is the explanation, the reason why we use it that they understand it, check for understanding but the way I check for understanding, usually verbally. And get them to give me examples, sentences, get them to do pair work where they're speaking... they're testing each other (BI).

Josey's aim was, therefore, to help her students understand the grammar point. To her, grammar learning happened through verbal communication: explanations, asking and answering questions or doing pair work. This might suggest that Josey believed in knowledge construction through social interaction.

The data also provide insights into Josey's attitude towards grammar. She liked teaching all grammar, she said. She explained: 'I get very enthusiastic, (...) I do love teaching grammar, I like the way it builds and... for me it's logical' (BI). Josey also showed confidence in her KAG. She could not think of any area of grammar that she felt less confident about (BI).

### 6.3.4 Beliefs about GTTs

During the background interview Josey often described her previous grammar teaching experiences, which shed some light on her use of grammar teaching techniques and her beliefs about them.

First of all, she saw differences between her use of grammar teaching techniques at different levels. She said that at advanced level ‘they don’t need quite so many visual demonstrations’ (BI). She further explained: ‘I find that a simple explanation to the board usually and me verbalising it, and maybe putting it into context verbally, and they’ll understand it’ (BI). If she heard her students making errors, Josey added, she would point them out and write them on the board. She also provided a rationale for using the above techniques: ‘Because quite often with the upper intermediate, the advanced students it’s revision’ (BI). In comparison at elementary level she would teach grammar in the following way:

(...) I would do what it takes for them to understand so if it is just simply a simple explanation, a verbal explanation with a demonstration, sentences on the board, on handouts they can work through and me helping them going round and actually helping them on an individual basis within the classroom, if that's enough for them to understand, great. But if they're still having difficulties, maybe that's when I would have to do more, more an acting demonstration or something, you know just do what it takes (BI).

Josey’s belief in promoting her students’ understanding of grammar would make her use a larger variety of grammar teaching tools at lower levels. She would also use techniques that she would not necessarily consider using at higher levels (e.g. ‘acting demonstrations’) (BI). Moreover, she would be willing to provide individual grammar support to her learners.

Before the background interview Josey had taught the third conditional to her group. She used a variety of grammar teaching techniques to make this grammar content accessible to her students. She had elicited rule explanations from her students, written them on the board and made comparisons between the different types of conditionals, she said. She had also used concept questions to make her students understand the differences in meaning between the different conditionals:

(...) so we go right back to the first conditional, we do a quick recap of the first and I talk about, (...) what is the first conditional. (...) Okay, we have a situation and we have an outcome and we talked about that is it possible? Is this in the future? (...) They say oh yes, it's possible future and possible future situation (...). So they understood that. Then we moved on to the second conditional and I said is it possible? (...) I gave them the situation... if I was swimming and I saw a crocodile, I would hit it on the nose. I said is this possible? And they were well.. not really. I said no, not really but is it? They said yes, it's possible. (...) so we sort of said is it

possible, okay but a hypothetical situation. (...) It probably won't happen but it could, it might. I said right now third conditional... so then we moved on. (BI)

Josey provided examples during her explanations. However, she did not only give her students an example sentence, but also explained a scenario, the context of the situation to her students. These scenarios were often about her students' personal lives.

(...) I usually pick up on something that they have told me from the past and so I'd say (...), we have a student who's here because her husband got a job here. So I said to her well in your case 'if your husband hadn't found a job in the UK, you wouldn't have come to England' (BI).

Josey also provided a rationale for using this technique: 'I try to use a realistic situation where they can picture' (BI). Therefore, what seemed to be of value to Josey was using examples which were meaningful to the students. This suggests that she believed that meaningful examples would enhance her students' understanding of the grammar point.

During the background interview Josey also explained how she would teach the present perfect. First she would provide rule explanations about the form and use of the grammar point. Then she would put the grammar point in context and give examples. Then, she would also use drawings, timelines and demonstrations, she said, which she considered 'useful' (BI). She would use a combination of these techniques in the following way:

(...) So it's a combination of things (...), sometimes I do an actual standing up and I do an actual position almost like a timeline but with my body. (...) I might stand here then I might move to here and then I move here and then stand here again, (...) I mean sometimes I draw timelines on the board I think they're very useful but I sometimes position myself and sort of demonstrate a timeline (...) I'd do the timeline on the board, draw a little car with a dotted line with an arrow going this way and then a big cross in the middle you know to demonstrate the Past Simple event that happened. (BI).

Josey's rationale for selecting the above techniques revealed that her selection of grammar teaching techniques seemed to be influenced by her beliefs about grammar learning, which were grounded in her own grammar learning style and her perception of the way students learn:

(...) maybe that's how I would learn if (...) I feel that if I was learning this particular... if I was learning a language that would be the way I would like to learn it and I think I try to teach it in a way that I feel they would understand (BI).

#### **6.4 The relationship between Josey's beliefs about GTTs and practices**

Data from the lesson observations show that a wide range of GTTs featured in Josey's observed grammar teaching practices (see Appendix 15). Exemplification occurred the most frequently in her observed practices. She mostly presented her examples in co-text or context and sometimes in the form of decontextualized example sentences. She regularly provided typewritten or verbal rule explanations, which she always combined

with other GTTs, such as exemplification. Elicitation and concept and context questions were also often utilised by Josey, which she also combined with exemplification. In addition, Josey recurrently compared grammar structures to make grammar content accessible for her learners. Although less frequently, visual tools, such as realia, gestures and timelines, also featured in her practices. Furthermore, synonyms and extending a rule beyond its scope were also parts of her GTT repertoire. Her rationales for her use of GTTs provided insights into the relationship between her beliefs about these techniques and her classroom practices. Moreover, it revealed internal and external supports and hindrances to the beliefs-practice relationship. In the following sections these will be discussed in detail.

#### 6.4.1 Josey's beliefs and practices about GTTs

##### 6.4.1.1 Beliefs and practice about exemplification

The most frequently used GTT in Josey's observed grammar teaching practices was exemplification. She used different types of examples, such as decontextualized example sentences, and examples in co-text or in context, often creating a whole scenario for the grammar structures she taught (Thornbury, 1999).

When revising the grammar structures for talking about the future (*be going to*, present continuous, future simple), she used decontextualized example sentences as a GTT. Her rationale for using this grammar teaching tool provides insights into her beliefs about it:

(...) To put it into context. So that they can look at the sentence and think okay that's realistic I understand that so I try to put it into a realistic example that they can associate with and it might help them (...) understand (...) the future form hopefully it helps them to (...) compare. So if each future form has an example sentence maybe this is a way of them being able to see the difference between the different forms (SRI1).

Although the sentences were not placed in a situational context, this technique created a context for grammar points, Josey believed. Also, she believed that if she provided a 'realistic' example sentence, it would help her students understand grammar and see the differences between the structures used for talking about the future.

In another lesson Josey used example sentences from learners' conversations (O2). This time Josey's group was doing a warm-up speaking activity before a listening exercise. Josey invited her students to tell stories of people whose life had significantly changed. One of her students told the following story about her family:

St A: My mother, once time she dreams and tell my father...maybe for ten years she didn't dream, she told my father one number: one thousand. No, three thousand. He says in the dream: 'Mother, mother, three thousand, three thousand!'



And my mum say my father: Ok, you buy this number with lottery. But my father this day don't have money. And my father only bought...no lottery, it is similar to lottery, but when you won it is the less money. Yes, but this number is the win!

J: It's the winning number! But he didn't buy a ticket!

St A: Yes, my father won the lottery! No lottery, the other...

J: Yes, less money.

St A: Less money. But if my father had money, maybe now I would be... three thousand (O2).

After Josey heard this story, she decided to provide an explanation about the third conditional. She wrote the following on the board:

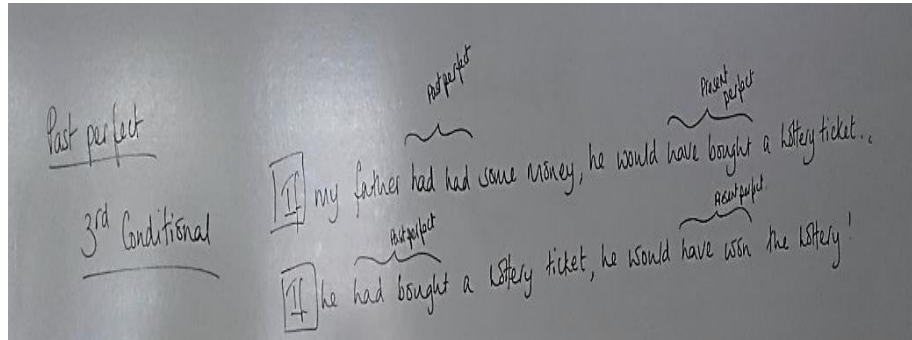


Figure 8: Conditional sentences on the board

Regarding her selection and use of examples during the above activity, she explained:

(...) I just thought, (...) there is a good example of a Third Conditional sentence that is relevant especially to Student A. (...) those are sentences that need to be remembered because they're quite useful to use as a tool, if you like to practice (...) the grammar and understanding of why we use the Third Conditional (...) but that's why I wrote that example on the board. Because I thought here is my opportunity to perhaps get the students to understand what's happening in this situation and why are using the grammar that we are using (...) so I just sometimes jump on things like that if I hear a student say something, (...) I'll put it on the board and say let's just have a quick look at that. I don't know whether this is a good thing because perhaps it detracts from what they're doing (SR12).

Josey thus held beliefs about providing examples meaningful to the students that impacted on her practice. She seemed to believe that this example was a useful tool for understanding the grammar point. It was an example from her student's story; therefore, it was relevant to her students. In addition, Josey believed that placing the example in a familiar context also helped her students understand the meaning of the third conditional.

When teaching the present perfect continuous, she asked her students to find examples of present perfect continuous structures in the tape script of a story they listened to (O3). Josey's rationale for using this grammar teaching technique shed light on her beliefs about it:

(...) I was trying to get them to identify some present perfect continuous sentences within the context of what they had just listened to, what we have been discussing, so that maybe it would help them understand why we use the present perfect continuous and it would put it in some context for them so that they could pictorially

understand why we use that form of grammar. (...) In a context that they would then instantly be able to understand or even relate to because we have just listened and studied it and talked about it (SRI3).

She used the tape script for creating a context for the present perfect continuous, a context that the students were familiar with and understood. She seemed to believe that using a familiar context would help students picture and understand why the present perfect continuous was used.

When teaching future forms Josey also used a complete scenario as an example (O1).

(...) again it comes naturally to me to do it (...) I just suddenly think of some scenario and I just think oh, because I suppose I think of when my mother was alive I would say to her, okay I'll do it! Sit there, don't worry I'll do it! I'll put the kettle on. (...) I can imagine a realistic situation where I would use this form (SRI1).

When Josey provided a scenario as an example, she relied on her experiences of using the language. To her, a realistic scenario would be recalling an occasion where she remembered using the grammar structure before. Josey's selection of this particular scenario was also influenced by her previous experiences of teaching: '(...) but this is an example I used before. So probably as well I remember the fact that I used this example before and that's why I used it again this time' (SRI1). During the scenario-based interview she also provided a rationale for using example scenarios for teaching the conditionals:

(...) I like them to be able to picture in their minds the scenarios, the situation so that they can actually imagine the probability of this happening. So that they understand that it probably won't happen, but it could. (...) I want them to be able to picture it in their mind and if you can picture it in their mind what's happening, the understanding why and then the grammar comes after that, really (SBI).

Josey considered using scenarios useful, because they enabled students to picture the situation in their minds. She seemed to believe that being able to visualise these scenarios was the beginning of the process of understanding the grammar point.

In another lesson on articles Josey asked her students to do a gap-filling activity (O6). The students had to read a short story about a man who went to the pub and insert the missing articles. Josey provided no explanations about the articles before this activity. Her rationale for introducing this grammar point with a gap-filling exercise reveals that her GTT here was teaching grammar in context:

(...) I thought it would be good for them in context to decide for themselves whether there should be an article or not at this stage (...) I wanted to put back the situation, the context in front of them (...) I was trying to create a story, a picture in their mind, so that they could, perhaps picture that to begin with, (...) and then in context explain that that's when we change from *a* to *the*. (...) I'm just 'Let's do it a little bit more visually as in their imagination (SRI6).

Therefore, Josey believed that introducing grammar in context was beneficial for the students: it activated their imagination and created in their minds an image of the situation where specific grammar content was used. Although to Josey this technique clearly had its advantages, she also held beliefs about its disadvantages:

(...) if I'm doing it verbally, so there is always I suppose the pit fall; if their listening skills aren't as good as the person's next to them maybe one person would understand everything I am saying and maybe the other person wouldn't. (...) but (...) you can't cater for every single student, one student might prefer a more of a verbal explanation to learn within context, to learn this way, another student might prefer it to be more paper based in black and white (SRI6).

This technique was not suitable for addressing all learning styles, Josey believed. In addition, students needed strong listening skills to be able to understand Josey's storytelling.

To Josey, teaching articles in context was probably a more engaging technique than providing rule explanations. '(...) I think just to give them loads of rules *a, an, the*, or nothing. It's a bit boring, it's a bit dry (...) you have to learn it; learn them in context', she explained. These beliefs seemed to be informed by her previous experiences of teaching articles.

(...) when I started, maybe I did in the past perhaps go immediately to the grammar and maybe we did do the grammar immediately but as time goes on sometimes you think, it's not really necessary to label the grammar immediately, (...) maybe sometimes it's more important to have to learn within context and learn the grammar at the same time, I think that's why I think just thought how to make a dull lesson a bit more interesting. Let's get more involved from the word *go* and let's talk about it more; explain it, verbal explanations as to why (SRI6).

Josey tried introducing the articles with rule explanations before; however, they did not seem to be very engaging to her students. Gaining experience made her realise that labelling grammar was not always necessary; learning it in context was more important. Therefore, her engagement in practice impacted on the development of her beliefs about pedagogical techniques for teaching articles.

*Table 18: Josey's beliefs about exemplification*

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
Example sentences (decontextualized)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>created context for the grammar point</li> <li>enhanced students' understanding of grammar and helped them see the differences between different grammar structures</li> </ul>	-

Example sentences from learners' conversations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• useful tool for understanding grammar content</li> <li>• relevant to students</li> <li>• learning a grammar structure in a familiar context helped students understand the meaning of grammar structures</li> </ul>	-
Finding examples in a tape script	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• created context which the students are familiar with and understand</li> <li>• enhanced understanding</li> </ul>	-
Example scenario	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• realistic = when Josey would naturally use the structure</li> <li>• helped students visualise the situation, which enhanced understanding</li> </ul>	Josey recalled using this technique previously.
Using a story from a gap filling activity (reading it out loud as well)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• created context for the grammar point</li> <li>• activated students' imagination and created an image of the situation in their minds</li> <li>• not suitable for addressing every learning style</li> <li>• required strong listening skills (from students) to understand Josey's storytelling</li> </ul>	Josey tried using rule explanations when teaching articles before, but they were not engaging for students.

#### 6.4.1.2 Beliefs and practice about rule explanations

Josey often gave verbal or written rule explanations when teaching grammar. Her use of rule explanations was characterised by frequent use of metalanguage. In her understanding using metalanguage in itself was a technique for making grammar content accessible to her students: '(...) it's easier, I think just to put things into categories and give things names (...) it's easier for the teacher but I would imagine that it would be easier for the students...' (SRI1). Data from the scenario-based interview provide further evidence: 'I think if you are trying to explain, you need the vocab. If you just kept saying verb it might be (...) more misleading to them than if you actually differentiate what form

the verb takes' (SBI). Therefore, to Josey using metalanguage enabled students to label and categorise grammar points, which enhanced their understanding. These beliefs seemed to be confirmed by multiple experiences of using metalanguage in the classroom (SRI1).

Josey often wrote handwritten rule explanations on the board next to her examples. This was the case, for example, when she taught future forms (see Figure 9), which she accompanied with verbal rule explanations:

J: (...) Good. Ok, what about number three?

St H: I think you can use both, I'm not sure.

J: Oh, *I'm not having* or *I'm not going to have dinner with my family tonight*. Actually, yes *I'm not having dinner with my family tonight* or *I'm not going to have dinner*, yes, because we *have dinner*, the expression we use, we *eat dinner* or *have dinner*. So in this context for the future you can use both. Yes?

St A: It's both?

J: Both, yes now usually, we don't use *have* in a continuous form, I must admit, usually we don't. But, we hear it so much now. You here people saying: *I'm not doing that now* or *I'm not having dinner tonight anymore*. So it is one of those situations when we don't usually make continuous actually, but in this context for the future you will hear it. (...) Because the expression is *to have dinner*. So yes. And it is not possession. Usually possession is that you don't make continuous (O1).

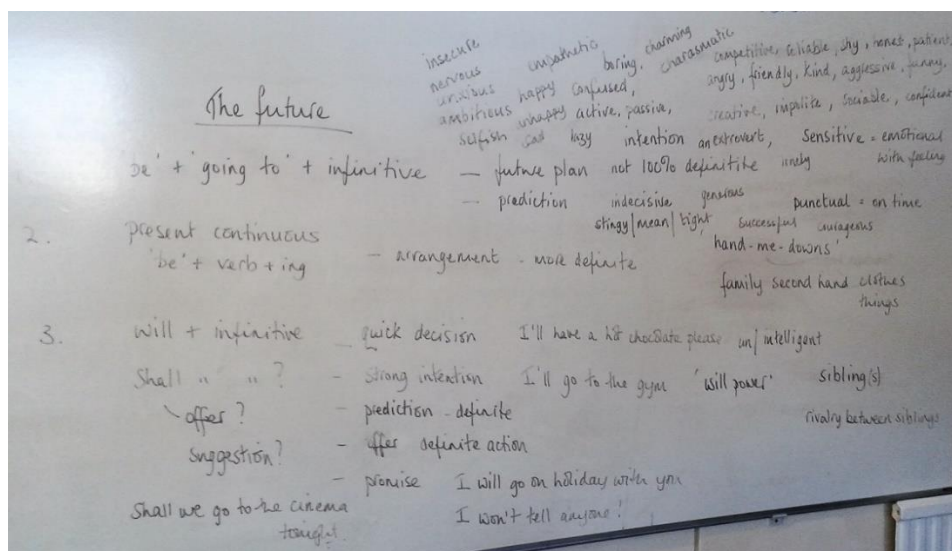


Figure 9: Rule explanations on the board about future tenses

Josey's beliefs about writing rule explanations and examples on the board seemed to impact on her grammar teaching practice.

(...) and by me writing that on the board as well, all the other students were also able to reinforce that, remind themselves of that, practice that. (...) So it's a revision, (...) focusing them on what we are doing at the moment and for people who weren't there at the previous lesson, it's a visual way of them being able to copy down into their books the grammar that we learnt so far and because we're

talking about it with explanations and examples, then hopefully that helps them understand as well (SRI1).

Writing the elicited rules and examples on the board reinforced her students' learning and provided them with further practice, Josey believed. She also appeared to believe that these techniques helped her students focus on grammar and helped them understand it. In addition, they provided an opportunity for those students who had missed the previous class to create a written record of their discussion.

In another lesson Josey decided to give an impromptu rule explanation about passive voice structures when they came across the expression 'was sacked' during a reading activity. She gave an example and wrote the following on the board next to her example sentence: 'be + pp (past participle)' (O5). This technique was 'a quick way of introducing them to the passive', Josey said, which helped students learn 'how to form it [passive voice] (...) how to build it' (SRI5). 'The extra bit of information that they need to know; that's why it's written in this way, because that is the rule that you use', she added (SRI5). She further explained: '(...) they're aware now that there is something out there other than the active sentences, other than normal sentences. They may forget it (...) but anyway, that's why I did that' (SRI5). Therefore, to Josey, the purpose of providing a quick rule explanation was to make her students notice this structure and learn the form. Josey explained that she often used the above techniques to provide a short introduction to a grammar point that they would learn in detail later on. Her beliefs about these grammar teaching tools were informed by her previous experiences of teaching. She said that when she used these techniques and looked at grammar structures in detail later on she often experienced the following: 'I'm sure there has always been the odd student who said: 'Yes, I remember this', because they made a note of it, they've written it down; they might go back through that book' (SRI5). Therefore, Josey's engagement in grammar teaching confirmed her beliefs about the above technique: they help students notice and remember grammar structures. In addition, her students sometimes got confused, Josey explained, because they might omit certain parts of the structure (SRI5). This seemed to confirm her beliefs about using this technique:

(...) this is another example why they need to learn the rules of the construction, they need to learn the construction, otherwise it can get muddled, it can get muddled together, so it goes hand in hand the understanding of why we use it and then the construction of (...) the grammar phrases (SRI5).

Therefore, learning the structure was essential in the process of understanding it, Josey believed.

In addition, Josey used typewritten rule explanations in her observed practices. For instance, when teaching the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives she gave a

handout to her students with typewritten rule explanations on. She provided the following rationale for using this technique:

(...) It's the rules in black and white, (...) they are trying to learn it, it's their reference, it's a way for them to be able to revise, look back at what we've done, (...) if they are not sure about something they can refer to it as well, as I say (...) reinforcement (...) This can be very isolating, if you give them a sheet, they are all looking down, they are all trying to read it, they are all trying to make sense of it (SRI5).

Although Josey could see some advantages of giving students typewritten rule explanations, she seemed to be very conscious of the atmosphere they created in the classroom. In order to address her concerns, she also gave verbal rule explanations alongside the typewritten ones and discussed the examples on the sheet with her students. She shared the following about using the two techniques together:

(...) it's good for us to look at them all together, just to (...) bring it to life a little bit. When you see something in black and white in front of you, (...) It is very easy to just read, but you don't really get it, you just skim over it, (...) so I usually go over it with them and just point things out, (...) think that's a really good thing (...) because it's their opportunity to work together to communicate together (...) and my opportunity for them to be able to raise any issues, difficulties, sort them out and for me it's a sort of the way that I quite like to do grammar (SRI5).

To Josey, the two techniques used together created opportunities for communication in the classroom. In addition, they enabled Josey to identify and address difficulties with the grammar structure. The scenario-based interview data provide further insights:

(...) I think sometimes you gotta start somewhere with grammar, sometimes you do actually need a sheet with everything written clearly out on and then, then they can do an actual written practice exercise. Sometimes it is a quite useful way for them to be able to picture what I am trying to say, trying to demonstrate (SBI).

Josey considered typewritten rule explanations useful because they helped the students picture her grammar explanations. Although Josey thought that the two techniques (typewritten and verbal rule explanations) together worked better than just handing out typewritten rule explanations, she said: 'You have to limit the amount of times that you actually just give them a sheet and teach off the sheet and do the exercise (...) I think it can get boring' (SRI5).

In her rationale Josey kept comparing using the above techniques to the combination of handwritten rule explanations on the board and eliciting.

(...) most of the time if we are doing a grammar point I will do it on the board, so that they can see it clearly, make it more interesting, (...) elicit from them, show them the construction, just make it more visual for them really and more inclusive so that they are all contributing as a team, as a group. (...) here they are all joining in, and they are looking up, (...) the board and all learning it, they are all firing stuff at me, and we are going a little bit off pace with this (...) I just feel that it's a nice way of learning of them being able to learn, a nice environment for them, less boring (SRI5).

To Josey, using the board to provide rule explanations was a different grammar teaching technique in itself. She seemed to believe that this visual way of presenting grammar created a pleasant environment, where the students were more motivated to contribute to the discussion. Interestingly, despite the advantages of the above techniques (elicitation, explanations on the board), Josey still decided not to use them to teach the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. This will be discussed further in section 6.4.2.1.

Josey's beliefs about typewritten rule explanations seemed to be informed by multiple experiences of using them. Josey remembered that she had used similar worksheets during her CELTA course and she had used them at Tower Language School for a long time (SRI5). Her rationale for using typewritten rule explanations for teaching the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives also provides evidence of the impact of engaging in practice on her beliefs:

(...) I mean in the past I used to write everything on the board, all of the rules and then I just thought one day it's crazy, it is all black and white in the back of the book, on a photocopy, I can give it to them. (...) and I have found that it all gets a bit complicated; or it's just me and what my boards are like, they do get a bit crowded at times, and I think I have thought in the past Oh my goodness! (...) but this time I don't know why (...) I just thought: 'I'm not gonna do all that this time'; I spent ages writing on the board, I mean the students seem to like it (...) they seem to join in and they are attentive and always look what I'm doing (SRI5).

Although Josey's students seemed to respond well to her explanations on the board previously, she found writing on the board time-consuming and complicated. Therefore, this time she chose different techniques to teach these structures. However, even after multiple experiences of teaching the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, Josey remained uncertain about which techniques to use when teaching this grammar content.

(...) in hindsight, (...) I wish I had put some adjectives up on the board and written some of the basic rules up on the board, (...) you see it's sort of an instant decision that a teacher has; well (...) you sort of think about your lesson beforehand, and I think at that time I just thought, I'm just gonna crack on with the context and elicit from them; point out in the context, the comparatives and the superlatives; do the exercise, with the sheet, have a look at it, explain, maybe the right decision, maybe the wrong decision, next time I might put the adjectives on the board (SRI5).

Josey's use of verbal rule explanations alongside written ones would also depend on what type of other grammar teaching techniques she had used before to make the grammar content accessible to her learners. When I asked whether she would always provide verbal rule explanations alongside written ones, she said: 'No, I think it depends, I've done a lot of explanations to the board' (SRI5). Her rationale for not giving verbal



rule explanations alongside typewritten ones when teaching articles provides further insights:

(...) I sort of think, well, the information is all there. They can read it. I mean we know we're looking at the articles, we've already talked about that (...) maybe I felt that I didn't need to read every single line out, (...) it would be more beneficial for them to do the exercise and refer back themselves, because it's quite plain, it's written out quite obviously (...) So maybe I just thought, well I would have just thought in this context, in this situation we've already talked a lot about the articles (SRI6).

Josey had already provided a verbal explanation about the context; therefore, she did not feel that she needed to explain articles. In addition, she seemed to believe that the rules were clearly presented on the handout; which also made her choose not to provide a verbal rule explanation.

The examples discussed in this section show that Josey frequently combined rule explanations with a variety of different grammar teaching tools. She provided the following rationale for these combinations:

(...) I like to give them the rules but rules aren't enough, you've got to learn why you're learning it and you've got to have examples in context of what they're learning and then they have to practice it themselves and speak in pairs or in a group and practice what they have learnt. It's just my way of reinforcing amongst themselves, really their learning and I've always mixed it all up together and I think it makes it more interesting as well (SRI1).

Josey used the above grammar teaching techniques because she thought that providing rule explanations was not 'enough' (SRI1). She seemed to believe that, besides her explanations, students needed to know why they were learning grammar, they needed examples in context and practice. She also appeared to believe that using many techniques together also made grammar learning more interesting. Her beliefs about using many techniques at the same time were also informed by previous experiences of engaging in grammar teaching (SRI1).

*Table 19: Josey's beliefs about rule explanations*

<b>GTTs</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTTs</b>	<b>Practice Informs Beliefs</b>
Using metalanguage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>enabled students to label and categorise grammar content, which enhanced their understanding</li> </ul>	Confirmed by experiences of using metalanguage in the classroom multiple times.
Handwritten rule explanations on the board	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reinforced students' learning</li> <li>helped students focus on grammar and helped them understand it</li> </ul>	-

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>provided an opportunity for those students who had missed the previous class to create a written record of their discussion</li> </ul>	
Short handwritten rule explanation on the board (be + pp) + example	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>quick</li> <li>helped students learn the form</li> <li>made students notice a grammar structure</li> <li>provided a quick introduction to a grammar point that they would learn later on</li> </ul>	Informed by multiple experiences of teaching. Students often got confused about the form previously. Josey's students could sometimes recall these quick introductions when they learnt the grammar structure in detail later on.
Typewritten rule explanations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>provided the rules in black and white</li> <li>provided a reference for students</li> <li>enabled students to revise outside of class</li> <li>could be very isolating</li> <li>could be used a limited amount of times</li> <li>could get boring</li> </ul>	-
Typewritten and verbal rule explanation used together	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>created opportunities for communication in the classroom</li> <li>enabled Josey to identify and address difficulties with the grammar structure</li> <li>influenced by the type of GTTs she used before (Josey's use of verbal rule explanations alongside written ones)</li> </ul>	-
Handwritten rule explanations + eliciting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>created a pleasant environment in the classroom</li> <li>provided visual support</li> <li>motivated students to take part in the discussion</li> </ul>	Josey found writing on the board time-consuming and complicated previously.

## 6.4.1.3 Beliefs and practice about elicitation, concept and context questions

Elicitation and concept and context questions often featured in Josey's grammar teaching practices. For example, when revising what the students had learnt about the future in the previous lesson Josey started the lesson by eliciting grammar rules from the students.

J: Yes, a future plan. [Teacher writes future plan next to *be going to*] Ok, anything else? Not Student A. Anything else? Where else might we use *going to*?

St B: Prediction.

J: Prediction, very good! Can you think of any predictions that we might make in England all the time?

St C: The weather.

J: Yes, the weather. *I think it is going to rain.*

St E: Yeah.

J: Your future plan now. Is it a definite plan? Does it look definite?

St F: No. (O1)

Josey also used elicitation during grammar activities. This is an example of how she used elicitation during a grammar activity on future tenses:

J: Right, let's have a look! What about number one? Anyone?

St D: *Shall*.

J: *Shall*, why *shall*?

St E: Because this is question.

J: It's a question and what else? It's a?

St B: It's a suggestion.

J: It's a suggestion, isn't it? *Shall we invite your parents?* (O1).

Regarding her use of elicitation, Josey shared the following:

(...) it's a way of me checking myself, (...) if they are able to tell me what I have taught them then I know that I have taught them and it's gone in and they understand. So it's a way of me sort of thinking oh gosh I'm doing my job! Okay. (...) I get an awful lot of satisfaction from knowing that what I have taught them, they have actually learned it. (...) it's a way of me being able to identify what I've missed there might be some gaps, they might elicit something back to me that's not quite right, so we can practise that (...), go over that on the board (SRI1).

Elicitation was a way of getting feedback on her learners' understanding of the grammar point, Josey believed. It could thus help her identify gaps in her students' learning, which she could then address by using other grammar teaching tools or further practice. Therefore, elicitation seemed to provide her guidance on her selection and use of the next grammar teaching techniques. Interestingly, to Josey, elicitation was more than a grammar teaching tool; it was also a way of getting feedback on the effectiveness of her teaching. Josey also said that elicitation was 'a way of getting them [students] involved and interested (SRI3)'. Hence, elicitation promoted student involvement, Josey believed. She added: 'it's also rewarding for them, because it makes them realise what they know' (SRI3). Therefore, Josey also seemed to believe that eliciting was a way of making students aware of what they knew, which probably promoted their self-esteem.

Josey's beliefs about elicitation seemed to have developed during her teacher training, and engaging in practice appeared to reinforce them.

(...) it's [elicitation] something I've learned during my CELTA (...) That it's important to elicit. Yes, I've always done that. (...) That's what I do every morning, I try to elicit from them, every skill, (...) if (...) we've done some listening, I elicit from them, (...) I want to check their understanding (...); I elicit from them the grammar that we've just learned, cause I want to check for understanding; (...) and then I just start the lesson off sometimes it's a good thing to do, it gets them speaking immediately, gets them fired up, and its, they all love it, they are all enjoying it, throwing ideas to the board (SRI3).

At the beginning of her career Josey seemed to experience a shift in her approach to teaching: a shift from focusing on how she taught to focusing on how her learners learnt better.

(...) when I decided to go into teaching I found that over time I felt very comfortable, it came naturally to me (...). I think when I first went into it, you're nervous (...) and you're so conscious about what you're saying and doing (...) but then (...) once I relaxed, I started to enjoy it. Then I just used my common sense, I just thought 'How would I want to be taught?' (...) to me it's obvious if you teach somebody something, you want to make sure they understand, so you elicit from them and if they don't get it quite right, you (...) teach it again. (...) whether it's adults, children (SRI1).

This shift appeared to have a great impact on her teaching: she started using elicitation to check her learners' understanding of the content.

Josey also often used concept questions in her grammar teaching practices. For instance, during a reading activity she decided to select the following sentence from the text for further discussion: 'He was sacked' (O5). First, she wrote it on the board and asked the following concept questions: 'Who? Who fired him? Who did this? Who sacked him?' (O5). Regarding her use of concept questions, Josey shared the following:

(...) I want them almost to tell me, 'because we don't know who', and then they have self-taught, if you like; (...) they have learnt that this is one of the reasons that we use the passive. (...) it's just my way of trying to get them to think for themselves. Rather than telling them. (...) I think that's a way then of me being able to get them; make them understand by asking. Because there are; if you like they are answering their own question. I'm asking who so they have to think about, 'Yeah, who? Well there isn't anyone, we don't know actually, we don't know.' So that's what I want them to realise; they are doing it for themselves (SRI5).

Josey seemed to believe that concept questions made students think and helped students understand the grammar point. In addition, by answering to concept questions students could learn and understand one of the functions of passive voice. When I asked Josey whether she could identify any challenges of using concept questions, she shared the following:

(...) sometimes they have no idea what I'm talking about; but I think that's what I mean by pick and choose, I don't necessarily always do it, if I think that they are really not going to understand what I'm talking about; but I felt that they would

understand the question if I said *who* and Student E shrugged her shoulders like that (SRI5).

Josey's use of concept questions would depend on her students' anticipated response to them. Her use of this technique at this particular lesson was informed by engaging in practice: one of her students showed signs of understanding Josey's questions; therefore, Josey decided that using this technique was beneficial to her class.

Moreover, Josey used context questions to make grammar content accessible to her students. For example, she introduced articles by giving her students a gap-filling activity, where they had to insert the correct article. After they had done the activity, Josey checked it with them. Whilst checking the activity she asked context questions and explained the context of the situation:

J: (...) Ok. *Have you heard this joke? A man with a dog...* This is a joke, ok? We don't know this man. *A man with a dog walks into a bar.*

St B: *a bar* not *the bar*.

J: Do we know this man?

St A, B & D: No.

J: Do we know this dog?

St A, B & D: No.

J: Do we know which bar?

St A, B & D: No.

J: No. Any, isn't it? A, it's *a man*, *a dog* and *a bar*. Now, we are being more specific now. So, when you are in a pub, well, sometimes there are two, but sometimes there is just one person behind the bar serving, ok? So, when you go into a pub we understand (...) the person serving you with a drink [teacher makes a sound like a pub tap], this person is a barman or we can say bar woman, but we just say barman. Ok, so we understand that in a pub there is a barman. The person behind the bar. (...) So, we *walked* into a bar, so now we know what, ok, where am I, *Have you heard this joke? A man with a dog walks into a bar.* Ok, so we've already spoken about a man. *A man*. But now, we understand the man. So now, we say *the*. Now we understand the story. We are there, we understand the story. So you start off *a man*, *a dog*, *a bar* ok. Now we understand. Well *the man*, that man I'm talking about, I'm talking about *the man* (O6).

Josey's rationale for using context questions provides insights into her beliefs about this technique.

(...) I think it's just to get them thinking for themselves; (...) if they can understand the context and think for themselves then they would then understand why we use... I'm a big believer in that they have to understand why and they have to be able to learn in context so that they can relate to it and perhaps this would make it easier for them to understand; so it's my way of double-checking that they are learning correctly (SRI6).

She believe that context questions (similarly to concept questions) made learning more cognitively challenging for students. In addition, using context questions in this particular situation helped her students understand the context of the situation, which supported their grammar learning. Furthermore, using context questions also provided immediate

feedback to Josey on her students' progress and enabled her to adjust her teaching techniques accordingly. The following quotation provides evidence:

(...) if they understand the context; (...) they understand the story, so therefore we can then move on to the reason, (...) so when I ask them 'Do we know this pub?' 'Do we know this person?' 'Do we know the place?' They are saying, 'No', so I think: 'Good, they are on board so far, they understand up to this point that we don't know' and so then that opens the gate for me (...) being able to say to them, this is why we use a (...). So for me it's like a stepping stone, so to make sure they are on board, make sure that they understand up to that point and then I can deliver the rule (SRI6).

Josey's comments on the challenges of using context questions provides further insights:

(...) the challenge could be that they don't understand what's going on. Then I would have to reverse (...) going back to the beginning; to explain, this was in a context of a joke, so (...) and then I'm gonna explain that sometimes when we tell a joke, it would tell it in form of a story (...) if I felt that I wasn't gonna get back from them, so I wouldn't put myself in that situation, I wouldn't put them unless I was confident that they understood (SRI6).

Josey used context questions because she believed that her students understood the context of the situation and would be able to answer her questions. If her questions had revealed that the students had not understood her questions, she would have given another explanation about the context. Interestingly, to Josey, asking questions about the context differed from asking questions for checking students' understanding of the grammar point.

(...) Sometimes you have to check for understanding, of course which is slightly different (...) after they've done it; maybe I've taught them something and I just want to double check that they understand, so I'll ask them questions again to check for understanding (SRI6).

Although Josey did not specify the type of questions she would ask for checking her students' understanding of grammar she had already taught, she clearly saw a difference between the types of questions she used for grammar teaching purposes.

*Table 20: Josey's beliefs about elicitation, concept and context questions*

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
Elicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>provided feedback on learners' understanding of the grammar content</li> <li>helped identify gaps in students' learning: provided guidance on the selection and use of the next grammar teaching techniques</li> <li>provided feedback on the effectiveness of teaching</li> </ul>	At the beginning of her career Josey experienced a shift in her teaching: instead of focusing on how she taught she started to focus on how her learners learnt. That's when she started using elicitation.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• promoted student involvement</li> <li>• raised students' awareness of what they knew, which promoted their self-esteem</li> </ul>	
Concept questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• made students think</li> <li>• helped students understand grammar content</li> <li>• influenced by students' anticipated response to them (Josey's use of concept questions)</li> </ul>	One of Josey's students showed signs of understanding Josey's questions; therefore, Josey decided that using this technique was beneficial to her class.
Context questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• made students think</li> <li>• helped students understand the context of the situation, which supported their learning</li> <li>• provided immediate feedback to Josey on her students' progress and allowed her to adjust her use of GTTs accordingly</li> </ul>	Josey used them, because she believed that her students understood the context and they were able to answer to her questions.

#### 6.4.1.4 Beliefs and practice about comparisons

Making comparisons was another grammar teaching technique that Josey often used in her classroom practices. For instance, she made comparisons between the different grammar structures used for talking about the future (future simple, *be going to*, present continuous) (O1). ('(...) I just think it's a very black and white way of them being able to see the differences between the three', Josey explained, SRI1). Therefore, she considered making comparisons between different grammar structures a clear way of demonstrating the similarities and differences.

Josey also made comparisons between the first, second and third conditionals, and between the different tenses used in these conditionals (O2). Her rationale shed light on the impact of her beliefs about this technique on her practices:

(...) I just wanted to revise first and second conditional just to put it into context and then say, well this is an example now of the third conditional so that they can perhaps organise it a little bit better. (...) You can't keep on revising everything all the time. So I would revise it initially before moving on to the third Conditional, just to check that they understand the first and the second and then move on to the third. Of course, it not always necessary I suppose for them to know the first or the second at all because you can teach the third conditional in its own right, but it's a

little habit I've got into (...). I do like recapping, the first thing this morning I did this morning was to recap on the difference between the Present Perfect and the Present Perfect Continuous (...) So I just like them to be able to compare and hopefully that helps them understand why we have the different structures, why we use the different structures (SRI2).

Making comparisons between the different types of conditionals created a grammatical context for the grammar point, Josey believed, which helped students organise their grammar knowledge. Moreover, it also enabled students to compare grammar structures and see the differences between their forms and functions. In addition, to Josey, another purpose of making comparisons was checking students' understanding of related grammar points they had learnt previously. Interestingly, Josey would only use comparisons for introducing a grammar point for the first time, but not later on.

(...) if we were doing the Third Conditional and started it one day, I would do the comparison but then if we were still doing the Third Conditional on the second day, I wouldn't do the comparison again. I sort of know when it's time to move on (SRI2).

In another lesson she made comparisons between present perfect and present perfect continuous structures (O3). She provided the following rationale for using this grammar teaching tool:

(...) students asked questions, (...) just learned the present perfect, you said to us that it started in the past and (...) continuously happens up til now, and now you are telling us something else (...) I compare it to make them understand the difference (...) Confusing them I don't know, but (...) they seemed to have grasped it (SRI3).

Making comparisons between these tenses helped students understand the differences between them, Josey believed. Her selection of this technique was informed by her practice: her students seemed to be confused about these tenses, but when she used comparisons they seemed to understand the differences.

In addition, Josey made comparisons to help students understand the meaning of *irregular* (O5). Her rationale for using this technique was the following:

(...) The irregular and why we call them irregular; because they are different from the regular. (...) so I was comparing verbs with the adjectives and explained that we have the same. So there again that would have just popped into my head, at that particular moment, thinking (...) if I explain with verbs regular or irregular, it's the same with adjectives; regular or irregular, so the irregular takes a different form, I think that's what I was trying to get, convey (SRI5).

Josey seemed to believe that by comparing verbs to adjectives and pointing out that both had irregular forms, she was able to help her students understand the difference between regular and irregular forms.



Josey's rationale suggests that engaging in practice and gaining teaching experience had an impact on her use of comparisons:

(...) I think it's something that I started at a particular point once I became more confident with my teaching (...). Probably I started then to see that you can go off pace if you like, just do little extra things, yeah I just sometimes identify something and I think let's just do that, let's just do a little bit of learning around that (SRI2).

Although Josey could not recall when and why she had started to use this technique, she remembered that she started to use it when she became confident enough to 'go off pace' and 'do extra activities' (SRI2). Therefore, gaining confidence allowed her to teach grammar in a more spontaneous way and do activities which were not necessarily planned in advance.

*Table 21: Josey's beliefs about comparisons*

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
Comparisons between grammar structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>demonstrated the similarities and differences clearly</li> <li>created a grammatical context for the grammar point which helped students organise their grammar knowledge</li> <li>enabled students to compare grammar structures and see the differences between their forms and functions</li> <li>was suitable for checking students' understanding of related grammar points they had learnt previously</li> <li>was suitable only when introducing grammar content for the first time</li> </ul>	Josey started using this technique once she became more confident in the classroom. Gaining confidence allowed her to teach grammar more spontaneously and do impromptu activities.

#### 6.4.1.5 Beliefs and practice about visual grammar teaching techniques

Although not as frequently as the GTTs discussed above, visual GTTs also featured in Josey's grammar teaching practices. For instance, she was observed using gestures when she acted out examples to teach future forms to her group (O1). When engaging

in impromptu grammar teaching to help students understand the meaning of *whom*, Josey created an example scenario (O2).

St C: I didn't know *whom*.

J: *Whom*, oh, ok. Yes, *to... for whom*. Yes, *to who or to whom*. Correct. (...) I like the word *whom*. I do like it, but we don't use it a lot now. Quite often you just hear people say *to who*, well, we should use it when for example asking the questions of possession. When (...) we don't know the person. We might say *to whom*. It's really quite a, sort of, old-fashioned way of speaking: *To whom does this belong?* I basically say: *Whose is it? Whose is this? Whose is this pencil? Whose is this? Oh, it's yours Student C. But I could say: To whom does this belong?* (O2)

In order to help this student understand the meaning of *whom* Josey provided synonyms and examples. She also picked up one of the students' pencils and created a short example scenario, using realia. Josey's rationale for using the above techniques was the following:

(...) Even though I don't know what I'm talking about but I'm trying to put it into context, trying to get them to understand that it's just a different way of asking: *Whose is this? Who does this belong to? To whom* (SR12).

Josey believed that by using the above techniques she could create a context for the grammar point and show her students that using *whom* is a synonym for *whose* (notwithstanding the grammatical and semantic differences between the two).

In another lesson Josey used another visual grammar teaching technique: a timeline. One of Josey's students had missed the previous lesson; therefore, Josey started this lesson by revising what they had learnt about present perfect and present perfect continuous structures at the previous lesson (O3). She elicited examples and rules from her students, provided verbal rule explanations, drew a timeline on the board and made comparisons between present perfect, present perfect continuous and past simple structures. This is a picture of her timelines and examples on the board:

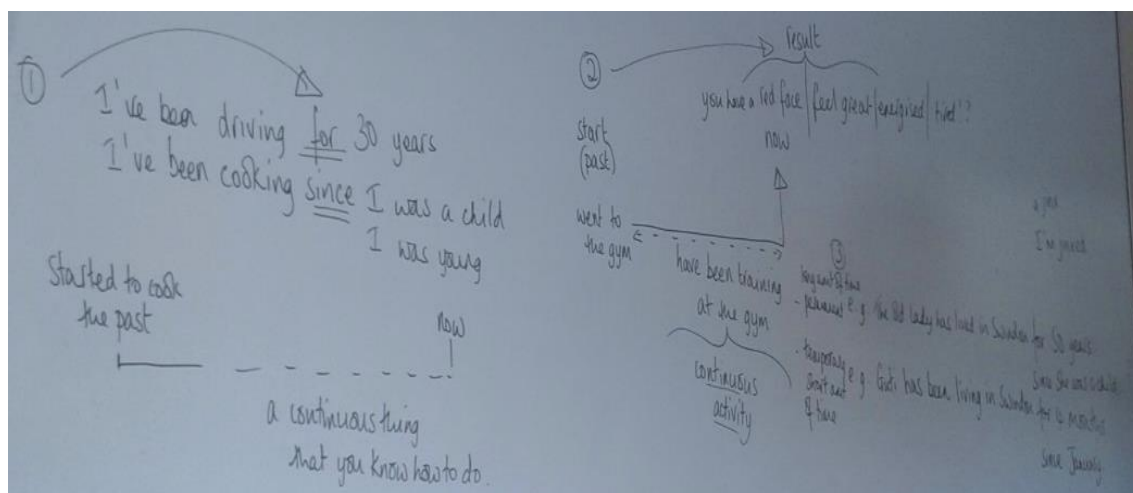


Figure 10: Timelines and examples

Josey seemed to hold beliefs about using timelines that impacted on her selection and use of this technique. She believed that timelines were '(...) pictorial, therefore quite a useful way of being able to illustrate time from the past to the present' (SRI3). She added: 'it helps my teaching (...) helps the students understand (...) relate to what we are talking about (...) put it into time order' (SRI3). Josey had been taught during her CELTA training that timelines were useful, she said (SRI3). Timelines featured in her CELTA course book and she had used them in her written assignments, she recalled (SRI3). This shows the impact of Josey's teacher training on the development of her beliefs about timelines. Her rationale also provides evidence of how engaging in grammar teaching impacted on her beliefs about timelines. Josey used to find using timelines useful when she taught one-to-one lessons at a company, she said (SRI3). More recently, she received the following feedback from her students on her use of timelines:

(...) Couple of my students in the past also have said 'We liked your timeline', they didn't call it timeline, 'We liked your picture', cause sometimes with the driving one I draw a little car as well (...) so students have in the past actually said to me 'We have found that quite useful or very useful, it helped us understand what you were trying to teach or what we were trying to learn.' (...) That's why I use timelines (...) Well, for example just recently Student A gave me some good feedback. She said, 'I liked your timeline, it sort of helped me understand the present perfect continuous' (SRI3).

Receiving positive feedback from her students on her use of timelines reinforced Josey's beliefs about this technique.

*Table 22: Josey's beliefs about visual GTTs*

<b>GTTs</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTTs</b>	<b>Practice Informs Beliefs</b>
Gestures, realia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Created context for the grammar point</li> </ul>	-
Timelines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>illustrated time from the past to the present visually</li> <li>helped Josey's teaching</li> <li>helped the students understand grammar content</li> <li>put grammar into time order</li> </ul>	She learnt about timelines at the CELTA course. Found them useful when she taught one-to-one lessons after the CELTA. She recently received positive feedback on her use of timelines from students.

#### 6.3.1.6 Beliefs and practice about using synonyms

Sometimes Josey used synonyms in her observed grammar teaching practices. As discussed above, she used *whose* as a synonym of *whom* (notwithstanding the grammatical and semantic differences between the two) (O2). When teaching articles,

she was also observed using this grammar teaching tool (O6). She provided the following rationale for using this technique for teaching articles: '(...) to emphasize, to put it in a context they might understand, to make it stronger, (...) because we are familiar with *our car*. All I'm doing there is just trying to emphasize, to try and reinforce, teach' (SRI6). Josey seemed to believe that this technique would help her students understand the grammar point, because they were familiar with the synonym. Also, to Josey, the synonym emphasized and reinforced the meaning of grammar points.

Table 23: Josey's beliefs about synonyms

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs
Synonyms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Enhanced students understanding of grammar content if they were familiar with the synonym</li> <li>Emphasized and reinforced the meaning of grammar structures</li> </ul>

#### 6.3.1.7 Beliefs and practice about extending rules beyond their scope

On one occasion Josey was observed using this technique to teach how to grade the irregular adjective *bad*. After finishing a reading activity Josey discussed the meaning of highlighted expressions (by the course book) in the text (O5). She asked her students whether they knew the meaning of *getting worse*. Many students seemed to be uncertain; therefore, Josey provided the following explanation:

(...) When you want to compare two things that are bad...so we say: *oh, well this is bad, and this is bad, but this is more bad*. So we say: *this is worse. Worse than...This is worse than this*. Not *badder*, we don't say *badder*. *This is bad, this is bad and this is very bad. This is worse. This is worse than this*. (...) So sometimes, when we compare, sometimes the word is different. And this is what we call irregular. Remember our verbs? There are different, you know, you have the first part. Some verbs, the present, the past, they are similar, aren't they? But some verbs, the present, the past, the past participle are quite different, each different form. So it's irregular. They are not normal. So this is what we call an irregular (...) This is how we compare. (...) Irregular adjectives. *Bad* goes to *worse* (O5).

In order to help her students understand how *worse* was formed, she graded *bad* as it was a regular adjective. Then she explained that *bad* was irregular, and *worse* was the correct way of forming its comparative form. In order to explain what an irregular form was she compared adjectives to verbs. She provided the following rationale for using this technique:

(...) they understand *more*; they understand *bad* (...) so I thought if I say *more bad* and then I say 'You can't say that', you have to say *worse* it would be a way of them understanding, that *worse* equals *more bad*, but you can't say *more bad* (SRI5).

Reminding students of what they already knew about adjective grading (how regular adjectives were graded) would help them understand how irregular adjectives were graded, Josey believed.

*Table 24: Josey's beliefs about extending rules beyond their scope*

<b>GTTs</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTTs</b>
Extending rules beyond their scope	Reminding students of what they already knew about regular forms could help them understand irregular forms

#### 6.4.2 Internal influential factors and practice

Josey's rationales show that her use of grammar teaching techniques was influenced by various internal influential factors, which could impact on her use of grammar teaching tools. In the following sections these will be discussed in turn.

##### 6.4.2.1 Beliefs about grammar content

In her rationales for using different grammar teaching tools Josey referred to her beliefs about grammar content the most often. For instance, she decided to compare present perfect and present perfect continuous structures on a timeline '(...) because they are quite similar (...) but there is a difference, so they need to understand the difference' (SRI3). On another occasion, when teaching the differences between *very* and *absolutely*, she decided not to provide a rule explanation, because she believed that this grammar point was 'straightforward'. 'I think I was always taught under the understanding that if it was your normal weak adjective, you used *very*, and if it was a strong adjective, you couldn't use *very*, (...) that's how I've learned it as a very black and white, straightforward thing' (SRI3).

In the lesson on comparative and superlative adjectives Josey's engagement in impromptu grammar teaching (quick explanation about passive voice structures) was also influenced by her beliefs about grammar content:

(...) if we were doing a particular grammar exercise on one specific grammar point, I wouldn't necessarily go pointing out another when we are trying to concentrate on one thing. I took this out of a piece of reading that we were doing so we weren't at that moment trying to concentrate on one particular form of grammar; I think we had done the superlatives, the comparatives and the superlatives (...) - which I know is grammar in itself, - but not what I would call the sort of, the main parts of grammar (...) it's when I am actually trying to learn a tense (SRI5).

Josey decided to talk about passive voice because she did not consider the grammar point the text focused on (comparative and superlative form of adjectives) a 'main'

grammar point (SRI5). In contrast, if they were learning a tense, which she considered a 'main' grammar point, she would not have taught passive voice this time. This shows that, to Josey, there seemed to be a distinction between different grammar structures based on how important Josey thought they were.

Although Josey appeared to consider giving explanations on the board and elicitation very advantageous, she seemed to hold beliefs about the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives which made her choose a different grammar teaching tool when teaching this grammar content.

(...) Quite often with a grammar point, I put it on the board because it is straightforward grammar, (...) so for the present perfect I put the construction up, I explain that the past participle (...) and I gradually work my way down the board and then we will start writing up sentences but I might elicit from the students (...) Quite often the board work I feel is necessary but I don't necessarily know why; but I think I do, I think more what I call basic grammar points. I think I do tend to explain them to the board more and elicit from the students. (...) I don't like teaching them [comparative and superlative forms of adjectives] very much, I find them bitty (...) it's confusing enough, so (...) I thought, maybe I should just keep it simple (SRI5).

Josey appeared to categorise grammar points and select grammar teaching tools based on their category. To her, comparatives and superlatives were not 'straightforward' or 'basic' grammar points; therefore, she decided not to put them on the board or elicit from her students (SRI5). '(...) I don't like comparatives and superlatives at all, I find it really fiddly, and I think every time I teach it, my method changes' (SRI5). Her comment shows that because Josey found this grammar point difficult, she also had difficulties finding the most appropriate pedagogical techniques for teaching it.

Finally, Josey's rationale for creating a context for articles provides further evidence:

(...) I think that a bit of a dry thing to have to learn. I think it's one of those things, you need to teach in context, so that they can relate to (...) what they are learning; because I think just to give them loads of rules *a, an, the*, or nothing. (...) they make no sense, they are just sort of hanging there all these articles (SRI6).

Josey decided to teach the articles in context because she found them boring and did not think that her students could relate to them in forms of rule explanations. She added: '(...) I think the trouble with articles; I always think it's article time, 'How I am gonna teach it this time?' (SRI6). This shows that Josey struggled to select teaching techniques for making this grammar content accessible to her learners.

#### 6.4.2.2 Beliefs about grammar learning and teaching

Josey's beliefs about grammar content often occurred together with other content-specific beliefs, such as beliefs about grammar learning and grammar teaching. For example, regarding her use of examples and short rule explanations for teaching the

third conditional, she said: 'I have experienced students that find it [the third conditional] quite difficult to learn because of the what happened first situation' (SRI2). The passage shows that this belief about her students' grammar learning was probably developed through experiences of engaging in grammar teaching. In addition, Josey said: '(...) I don't think it hurts sometimes for them to have a little taste, and then when we actually move on to do the third conditional (...) they might just remember something from that earlier lesson that we did' (SRI2). Therefore, Josey believed that introducing a grammar point to her students before focusing on it could be beneficial for them, because they might be able to recall this quick introduction later on.

Josey's rationale for using exemplification, concept questions and short rule explanations (formulas) for quickly introducing passive structures to students shows that her beliefs about students' grammar learning informed her selection of these techniques.

(...) sometimes I just think there is an example of something [of a grammar point] that they find quite difficult to understand, when we are actually concentrating on it; so I thought again to quickly take that out and put it on the board, because they understand now the context of what we were doing, they understand the story (SRI5).

Therefore, Josey believed that her students would understand the grammar point more because they seemed to understand the context where it occurred. Regarding her use of formulas, Josey shared the following:

(...) it's because they need to know (...) that if you want to speak in this way then this is how you construct the sentence (...) the grammar. So I think students need to know why in order to understand, I think they need a breakdown of how we form the different ways that we speak (SRI5).

Josey used the above technique because she believed that if students wanted to use passive voice (gain procedural knowledge about it) they needed to know the structure.

Furthermore, Josey held beliefs about grammar teaching that impacted on the relationship between her beliefs about GTTs and use of pedagogical techniques. Josey's considered enhancing her students understanding of grammar very important.

I wanted to make sure they understood (SRI1).

Again I guess, I'm just trying to make sure they understand what we're talking about (SRI2).

(...) I'm just double checking that they understand that not all comparative, not all comparatives are the same. Most of them are, I want them to understand that most of the time we compare with the rules that they seem to understand, with the *er*, *ier*, and the superlatives the same but *est*, *iest*, I just wanted them to not fall into the trap of trying to make the irregular adjectives, trying really to sort of reinforce that they don't follow the rules for regular adjectives (...) sometimes I think, 'Did they already understand? But I'll do it anyway' (SRI5).

This suggests that Josey did not want her students to just learn grammar, she wanted to use techniques that helped them understand both the form and the function of grammar structures.

The data provide further evidence that Josey considered helping her students understand grammar very important.

J: (...) if they've shown evidence of not understanding fully or finding something particularly difficult, then I would go through rules on the sheet with them (...).

A: (...) basically it all depends on whether you think the students understand the grammar point or not.

J: Yes and how much teaching they need, really. I could just kind of fling sheet on their desks and they might just put it in their files, walk off and never look at it again; but I don't want them to (...) use it as a reference sheet, (...) so that they can refer back, so that they know if they are gonna do the present perfect continuous, oh I've forgotten why I'm using this and they can look back; (...) they know that they can always rely on it (SRI6).

Josey's selection and use of verbal rule explanations seemed to depend on her students' response to the grammar teaching techniques she had used before. If they showed signs of having difficulties with the grammar point, she would provide verbal rule explanations alongside written ones. This also suggests that she felt responsible for supporting her students' grammar learning.

#### 6.4.2.3 Beliefs about students' grammar knowledge

In Josey's rationales for using grammar teaching techniques another type of content-specific belief (beliefs about her students' grammar knowledge) sometimes featured. For instance, Josey's beliefs about her students' knowledge of metalanguage had an impact on her use of metalanguage in her explanations.

[I use metalanguage] because I'm aware that they will have already been taught that in their Pre-intermediate classes. (...) So they will be familiar with the word infinitive, they will be familiar with what the past participle is. So they know these things already (SRI1).

Josey also seemed to hold beliefs about her students' knowledge about conditionals that informed her classroom decisions. She explained:

(...) they're familiar with the first and the second, I know that for sure. We did a lot of work on that in the previous book and I know they will have some first and second conditional with Katie in the pre-intermediate (SRI2).

Josey thus believed that the students were familiar with the first and the second conditional because they had learnt them before, both with Josey and at their pre-intermediate classes.



Josey's rationale for focusing on articles provides further evidence: '(...) I'm quite aware that maybe in their language they don't use articles like we do (...) so it's quite difficult for them to get used to either using one or none' (SRI6). Hence, Josey seemed to believe that her students might have had difficulties with learning articles because of the differences between their first languages and English. Her rationale for introducing the grammar point with a gap fill exercise provides further insights:

(...) I had an idea that they would probably be able to do that exercise without looking at the rules (...) every day in their e-mails or with their speaking, maybe they are already used to when to use an article and when not. (...) Sometimes perhaps they got used to using or saying something in a certain way but they don't perhaps know why (SRI6).

Students were able to use articles in speaking or writing in English, Josey thought, but they did not seem to have declarative knowledge about the grammar point. Therefore, they would be able to do the exercise without knowing the grammar rules, Josey believed. These beliefs were informed by Josey's classroom experiences.

(...) I don't remember really ever having to correct much about articles in the past, they usually use the correct articles anyway naturally, and there's a few mistakes here and there and so I just thought you know, I think they will be able to do that gap fill exercise, and then we look more closely at the rules and take it from there (SRI6).

Josey's students did not seem to make many mistakes with articles in speaking; therefore, Josey believed that they were able to do the activity without looking at the rules first.

#### 6.4.2.4 Beliefs about teaching

Josey's rationales show her content-specific beliefs often interacted with her broader pedagogical beliefs. One of these was her beliefs about teaching. Josey explained that she decided to review present perfect and present perfect continuous structures because she did not want the student who had missed the previous class 'to feel lost' (SRI3). Reviewing the grammar point served two pedagogical purposes: 'by doing that [doing a revision activity] Student A is being updated with what we did, and the class revising what we did', Josey explained (SRI3). This suggests that Josey believed that it was her responsibility to make sure that students who missed classes were not left behind. Her rationale for giving students typewritten rule explanations about the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives provides further evidence:

(...) You can write things in your book and some students, (...) they are very conscious about doing this, but some aren't. It could be argued that that's their problem; but by giving them all a sheet, a photocopy, and everyone has it, everyone has the same (SRI5).

Therefore, giving every student a written record of grammar rules was her responsibility, Josey believed.

#### 6.4.2.5 Beliefs about student motivation

Josey's rationale for using elicitation provided insights into her beliefs about student motivation:

(...) I think it's good for students to be able to share what they already know and write it on the board (...) I imagine that maybe they would like to feel that they are sharing their knowledge... Explaining what they know. I'm quite interested to know, to find out what they know as well. But I don't dwell on it, I don't spend too long on eliciting information if I feel that they're not sure then I wouldn't pursue that. But for this particular lesson I was eliciting it because I knew that (...) it had already been covered as a topic (SRI1).

Hence Josey selected eliciting because she believed that sharing previously acquired knowledge would motivate her students.

#### 6.4.2.6 Beliefs about real-life discourse and supporting students' development of agency

When teaching future forms Josey considered making her students aware of the differences between how English was used inside and outside the classroom important.

(...) I think it's important for them to realise that in reality as well sometimes they will hear differences. Outside on the street. (...) I think I do highlight this quite a lot and explain to them how language is changing (...) the way that we perhaps spoke in the past isn't necessarily the same as how we speak now. Incidentally I'm not sure if that's grammatically incorrect (...) We're teaching that you can't say it in the continuous and then they're going outside or watching TV and they're hearing and it could create confusion. (...) I explain to them that this is actually the textbook way of learning the English language, this is the correct way of learning the English language from a school point of view. (...) So I just feel that that's important that they should know that to hopefully to avoid any confusion (SRI1).

Therefore, by making comparisons between classroom language and real-life discourse she could raise students' awareness of the differences and thus avoid confusion, Josey believed. She also seemed to hold beliefs about how language was used outside the classroom.

(...) what you hear outside isn't necessarily correct, textbook correct, I know. But you will hear it from time to time so but I think it's important that you learn what is correct and so then you can identify what isn't and then it's your choice whether you use the correct form that you have learnt or whether you start the more kind of street language (SRI1).

Josey's comment shows that, although she did not necessarily consider language use outside the classroom correct, she still thought that making students aware of it enhanced their knowledge about the English language and it enabled them to choose

which forms they wanted to use in real life situations. This seems to provide evidence of Josey's belief about supporting students' development of agency.

#### 6.4.2.7 Belief about promoting self-esteem

Josey's beliefs about promoting her students' self-esteem also seemed to influence her classroom decisions. She gave the following rationale for introducing articles with a gap fill activity:

(...) It's almost like, kind of I would just say 'correct' (...) and then 'okay, let's have a look of that, a bit more closely, and (...) why are we using that particular article.' Sometimes I think it's quite nice for them to feel encouraged and 'Oh, I am speaking correctly, I am saying these things' and then we talk about, 'Have you ever thought about why?' (SRI6).

To Josey, giving an activity to the students that she thought they could successfully complete would build their self-confidence.

#### 6.4.2.8 Beliefs about her current students

Josey's rationale for introducing articles in context and asking context questions shed light on another influential factor on the relationship between her beliefs about GTTs and grammar teaching practices:

(...) all I can do is go with my instinct and what I think will be suitable for my students and what will work; but I do think of my students, they are quite communicative, they usually like to be verbal, get involved (...) That's why I'm quite confident (...) if I had students who didn't like speaking and like to just keep their head down, just wanted to learn everything from the book and didn't really want to participate; (...) then perhaps it would be different (SRI6).

Josey considered the above grammar teaching techniques suitable because she believed that her students were communicative and liked getting involved in activities. The passage also provides evidence to the situated nature of these beliefs: her beliefs were held in relation to her present group of students.

#### 6.4.2.9 Josey's knowledge about grammar points and previous experiences of teaching

Josey's rationale for using elicitation and exemplification shed light on the impact of another influential factor on the relationship between her beliefs about these techniques and her grammar teaching practices: Josey's knowledge about using intensifiers with adjectives. She said: '(...) I don't remember ever reading anymore rules than that, maybe there is more to it than that but I've never taught anything more than that. I mean it probably has to do with the syllables (SRI3)'. Hence, her perceived lack of knowledge about this grammar point may have motivated Josey to use exemplification and elicitation

instead of other grammar teaching tools. Her rationale for using synonyms and exemplification for teaching *whom* provides further evidence:

(...) *Whom* is a funny word I mean it is to do with.. I think, the object isn't it? *To whom?* I mean I'm not sure to be honest. (...) it's to do with possession, isn't it? We used to... the old way of asking: *To whom...* it's to do with word order, *to whom* meaning the person, *to whom does this belong?* Rather than starting at the beginning and saying: *Who does this belong to?* So we used to say *to whom. To whom does this belong?* And I remember looking at this and researching this when I was learning, and I've forgotten (...) I know it's to do with word order and with possession and it's just the other way of saying it. (...) I've always understood that you shouldn't really finish a sentence with a preposition. So really when we ask: *Who does this belong to?* We really, you shouldn't be finishing with *to*, so the way that we should be asking is really *To whom does this belong?* (SRI2).

Josey's explanation shows that she did not feel confident about her knowledge of this grammar structure. She had memories of researching it, but she did not seem to know the rules of using *whom*. Her rationale suggests that this could be the reason why she used examples and synonyms to make this grammar content accessible to her learners: 'even though I don't know what I'm talking about but I'm trying to put it into context' (SRI2). Her rationale also shed light on another influential factor, her lack of experience in teaching this particular grammar point:

(...) I don't usually have this, *whom* doesn't usually come up, I must admit. It was quite unusual, for me I didn't have this asked from me before as you can tell but I remembered...just because I was interested myself (SRI2).

#### 6.4.2.10 Josey's preferred communication style

Josey's rationale for using gestures and acting out scenarios also shed some light on the impact of an influential factor: Josey's preferred style of communicating.

(...) I think I'm quite a visual person myself anyway. For example, I don't like speaking on the telephone, I'm much better at talking to people face to face. (...) So for me it comes quite naturally to give a physical example, act out a little situation or they might be watching and thinking ah okay, I understand what she is doing. Of course they might think I'm totally crazy and not understand anything what I'm doing. Maybe I should ask them (SRI1).

However, to her, using gestures 'comes quite naturally', she did not seem to know whether this technique promoted her students' understanding of grammar (SRI).

### 6.4.3 External influential factors and practice

#### 6.4.3.1 Teaching materials

The data suggest that the relationship between Josey's beliefs about GTTs and teaching practices were also influenced by the teaching materials she used.

I have always taught them [three tenses] together. (...) So that they can compare them. Now that may well be because the books have always done them together. (...) I think I've always come across these forms being together under the heading of future forms. I think they've always been put together because of the fact that they are (...) ways of speaking about the future (SRI1).

I think textbooks that I've always used have been very geared to doing the present perfect and then the next page you turn, you are doing the present perfect continuous (...) it doesn't say anywhere that you should compare the two together, but I just do (SRI3).

Josey's use of comparisons between grammar structures was influenced by the course books she adopted. She compared different grammar structures because they were compared or occurred one after the other in the materials she used.

The data also show that the course book content might determine whether Josey would engage in grammar teaching at all. For instance, Josey's engagement in impromptu grammar teaching was influenced by her perception of the example sentence provided by the materials. ('I did it [taught passive voice] then because it was just a straight, a simple, straightforward sentence', SRI5). Therefore, she decided to engage in grammar teaching because she found a clear example sentence in the text. In another lesson the context that the course book created impacted on her use of GTTs. ('it [her use of GTTs] does depend on the context, fortunately the context was good, with the top gear context, because everybody seems to enjoy this and understand it', SRI5). She clarified that by context she meant the chapter or the activity where the grammar point occurred (SRI5). Her perception of the context was also informed by her students' response to it. She considered it a 'good' context because her students seemed to enjoy and understand it (SRI5).

#### 6.4.3.2 Student attendance

Finally, student attendance also seemed to impact on the relationship between Josey's beliefs about GTTs and her grammar teaching practices. She provided the following rationale for starting one of her observed lessons with a grammar revision activity, which involved the use of comparisons, exemplification, rule explanations, elicitation and the use of gestures as grammar teaching techniques:

(...) for example there is a student who can't come tomorrow to the lesson and this always happens. (...) There is always a certain amount, I don't spend too long, you can't spend a long time recapping and going back over what we have learnt so quite often I'll just do it as a quick warmer upper and quick revision for students who weren't there on the previous lesson. But you can't always do that because you have to think of the students who are there, who want to move forward, who do understand it. (SRI1).

Josey used the above techniques because she believed that both students who had and had not attended the previous class could benefit from taking part in the grammar activity. She was, however, very conscious of the length of the activity. Taking into account those students who attended the previous class, she said that she would not spend much time revising grammar.

## Chapter VII. Rudy

### 7.1 Educational background

#### 7.1.1 Personal and Prior Educational History

##### 7.1.1.1 Primary School

Rudy started learning English at primary school, when he was seven years old. At that time learning English was not popular in Poland, he explained, but his parents encouraged him to take up extracurricular English classes, which he did not particularly enjoy.

(...) I was much more willing to play football with my friends but I had to have some classes while they were playing. So that was a bit painful at that time so I can say in primary school I wasn't the best student. Because I think it took me about eight years to get to elementary level (BI).

His memories about how he was taught grammar were vague, but he recalled that in order to make grammar content accessible his teachers used explanations, practising and drills.

##### 7.1.1.2 English Classes at International House

When Rudy attended secondary school, he continued learning English at a private language institution for three or four years. Here the majority of his teachers were English, and they did not speak Polish. Their style of teaching was 'more (...) implicit', Rudy recalled (BI). To him, this meant providing some explanations but mainly using exercises and questions. Rudy said he preferred this style of teaching:

(...) I'm not (...) much of an academic type. So I learnt the language to be able to communicate. So I prefer the implicit and because okay, a bit of explanation is okay sometimes but (...) things like Present Perfect there is not much you can explain (...) you can say the things that are in the book. But... it's actually about how you are going to understand it and you won't understand it unless you try to use it (BI).

(...) Present Perfect. (...) I had thousands of explanations by different teachers it didn't help it's only when I came here [United Kingdom] I started seeing how people use it and at some point it just clicked. (...) I noticed how it's used and then something just clicked and now I know it (BI).

Rudy's pre-training experiences seemed to impact on the development of his beliefs about grammar learning and teaching. Whereas explicit grammar teaching (e.g. grammar explanations) did not facilitate his understanding of present perfect, noticing how people used the structure and using the structure did. This experience seemed to form a belief: explanations do not necessarily help students understand a grammar point; students need to use the structure in order to understand it.

## 7.1.1.3 Learning German and Russian

Rudy also learnt Russian and German at school. At primary school, Rudy explained, learning Russian was obligatory (BI). Later on at secondary school he had to learn two foreign languages; therefore, he also took up German. Both foreign language classes were too large, Rudy recalled; therefore, they did not do much speaking practice. Grammar was taught explicitly, characterized by 'explaining, following, practising' (BI). He described his learning experience as 'memorizing, trying to understand' (BI).

## 7.1.1.4 Beliefs about the above techniques

Reflecting on his grammar learning experiences at primary and secondary school and the grammar teaching techniques his teachers used, Rudy said:

(...) I've learnt it [grammar]. So apparently it was effective... although I think it took too much time (...) I think it could have been done in a different way and could have been done sooner than that (...) I think understanding is more like... a teacher can do something but it's actually up to the student if they want to understand it in the first place (...) when I look at my secondary and primary education then... a lot of students including me (...) I had to do it because I had to do the test (...) Effective...yes because I know it. Interesting? Not really. (...) I mean I do pretty much the same things sometimes, I try to make it interesting for them but most of the time it's explanations and doing some exercises (BI)

(...) It was... just (...) do the exercises and then check it, there was no conversation in between (...) which I missed, which I thought would be a good idea when I was...studying. (...) my teachers just told me to do the exercise and gave me the answer (BI).

Although Rudy did not find explanations helpful when he was trying to understand present perfect, overall he considered giving explanations and doing exercises an effective way of teaching grammar because they had helped him learn the structures. However, these methods involved no conversation; therefore, Rudy found them mechanical. In addition, Rudy stressed the role which learners played in their grammar learning. He seemed to believe that grammar teaching methods are not inherently effective unless learners take part in facilitating their understanding. Interestingly, despite his mixed feelings about the above methods of grammar teaching, Rudy used them in his practices. However, he tried to make them interesting.

*Table 25: Influence of PLLEs on Rudy's beliefs about grammar teaching*

Occurrence	Grammar teaching methods/GTTS	Beliefs about methods/ GTTs	Other beliefs
Primary School	Explanations, practising, drills	<u>Explicit GTTs:</u> effective (if	Understanding grammar is up



Russian and German learning	Explicit: explanations, practice	learners take responsibility for facilitating their understanding of grammar), time-consuming, uninteresting	to the students, it does not depend on the teacher.
International House	More implicit: some explanation, but more exercises and questions	<u>Implicit GT:</u> More effective than explicit teaching, because students need to use grammar to be able to understand it	

### 7.1.2 Professional Education

#### 7.1.2.1 Degree courses

Rudy held a Bachelor and a Master's degree in English philology with a specialisation in English language teaching. During these courses many theories of teaching were discussed, Rudy recalled, which helped him 'realize a few things about language learning and teaching, not only related to grammar' (BI). One of these theories was Krashen's Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (1981).

(...) I think it works I mean acquisition is much more important than learning, so that's why I try to (...) do some grammar part during the lesson. But one of the main assumptions of acquisition vs learning is  $i+1$ , which means I always try to... if I see that students are actually okay with what we are doing and they're not tired, because I think that's the most important part they need to be willing to do it and then (...) how about trying something from a higher level then related to that... because I think that's the most important part. To push them a little bit (BI).

Learning about Krashen's theories (1981) had an impact on Rudy's beliefs about teaching. He believed in the principles behind Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981) and tried to implement them in his classroom practices. However, he also believed that implementing this teaching method also required his students' willingness to learn. His rationale for considering  $i+1$  so important provides further insights:

R: (...) I started doing it and I can see that it works.

A: Do you mean you started doing it in your teaching (...)?

R: No. (...) a little bit with myself because I noticed the more I talk, the better I understand (...) what I had been explained before (...) So it's fluency it's what I'm mostly focusing on.

A: I see so that's basically based on your own...

R: On my own experience the way I would like to be taught. (BI)

In Rudy's understanding focusing on i+1 also meant promoting fluency. Because practising speaking had helped him understand how the English language worked, he seemed to believe that promoting fluency would enhance his students' understanding of previous language explanations. At his master's course Rudy also became familiar with the teaching methods of audiolingualism and TPR (Total Physical Response).

(...) I think is partly useful not all the time but it's good to implement something that is called audiolingual method. (...) which basically means drillings. I think that's for a moment is okay cause that can help students to get used to this structure and to get used to the speech organs using because (...) some students really have problems for example with pronouncing 'would' (...) And if you talk about second and third conditional, it's more like actually remembering this structure plus do a bit of practice on pronunciation because (...) two things at the same time (BI).

(...) I think it's quite good also, it's called total physical response just do what they tell you to which is more like response in more like a kinetic way (...) of course it's more (...) useful in lower classes, for example discussing present continuous or sometimes maybe past continuous or sometimes you just ask students to perform a scene and for example when you teach reported speech okay, to report what they have seen (BI).

During his master's course Rudy seemed to have developed a set of beliefs about the above teaching methods. He did not consider them applicable in every classroom situation, but he believed that they could be useful for teaching certain grammar points or developing certain language skills. In addition, his comments on TPR also suggested that, to Rudy, the effectiveness of this method would also depend on his students' level of English.

In addition to coursework, Rudy also had to complete observed teaching practices at local high schools. Regarding how he taught grammar during these teaching practices, Rudy shared:

R: (...) I think I just followed my teachers, I mean, (...) so they gave explanations then we read the answers.

A: You mean your teachers from the course?

R: From the university. (...) Cause they're used to it. (...) Of course it's always cool to think about something new and exciting but not if you have like five different exams the next day and then so you just do in order to pass and that's it.

A: Can I ask in general what did your teachers normally do? How did they explain grammar because you said you followed that?

R: (...) it was explained... everything was in English of course, the books were in English as well, so some of the teachers were English (...) I think that [the fact that the teachers were English] was much more useful than actually the explanation itself. (BI)

Due to the lack of time for developing new techniques, Rudy used the same teaching methods as his tutors: he gave explanations and followed course books. However, the passage also shows evidence of how engaging in teaching practice impacted on Rudy's

beliefs. He seemed to believe that students benefitted more from exposure to the target language than from listening to explanations. As discussed above (section 7.1.1), Rudy pointed out the lack of communication during his English classes at school. Hence, during his observed teaching practices, he said that he asked his students ‘to actually try and think about it [grammar] themselves because this way you have to communicate’ (BI). However, Rudy seemed to find making his monolingual classes communicate in English challenging.

R: (...) At that time it was only Polish people so they tend to use Polish as well of course I tried to remind them not to do it. Some of them were trying to follow, some of them not. (...) those who did it benefited more than those who did it either in Polish or didn't do it at all.

A: Oh. So I was just wondering did you ever try to use Polish to give explanations or you always used only English? (...)

R: No, I tried to use English...

A: All the time?

R: Yes, but sometimes first English if it doesn't work okay reluctantly I would switch to Polish. (BI)

The passage provides further evidence of the impact of engaging in teaching practice on Rudy's beliefs. Rudy appeared to believe that those students who used English during discussions benefitted more from his lessons. Although Rudy seemed to be against using the students' L1 in the classroom, he still explained grammar in Polish when his explanation in English had not been successful. (BI)

#### 7.1.2.2 CELTA course

When Rudy moved to England and started teaching English, he was encouraged by his employer to get an English qualification. Therefore, he enrolled in the CELTA course. The course was very easy, Rudy recalled, because he already knew the verb tenses. His only memory about the course content was learning about a different way of looking at verb tenses. Rudy's tutors provided him with the following explanation: ‘(...) basically you have three aspects: Simple, Perfect and Continuous. (...) that actually narrows down the number of tenses to three: present, future and past with different aspects’ (BI). In order to illustrate this Rudy wrote the following example on the board:

Table 26: Rudy's explanation about the three aspects of tenses

He + do his homework			
	Present	Past	Future
Simple	He does homework	He did homework	He will do homework
Continuous	He is doing homework	He was doing homework	He will be doing homework
Perfect	He has done homework	He had done homework	He will have done homework
Perfect Continuous	He has been doing homework	He had been doing homework	He will have been doing homework

Rudy used this teaching technique from the moment he saw it at the CELTA course, he remembered, because it seemed useful. He added: '(...) a lot of students find it really useful. There is always like 'aahhh' [the teacher used this to illustrate students' reaction when they suddenly understand something] so that was the first thing I did when I saw it' (B1). This shows that his beliefs about this technique were also confirmed by engaging in teaching practice.

Table 27: Impact of professional education on Rudy's beliefs

Occurrence	Grammar activities/GTTs	Beliefs about grammar activities	Other beliefs
Degree courses (BA & MA)  Taught elements	-	-	<u>Belief about Krashen's Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981):</u> it is important to push students (i+1 in Rudy's understanding); in order to be able to push students they need to be willing to learn; speaking practice enhances students' understanding of previous explanations  <u>Belief about audiolingualism:</u> this method is useful, helps students to get used to a structure (e.g. pronunciation of would)  <u>Belief about TPR:</u> TPR is useful at lower levels (e.g. for teaching tenses)

Degree courses (Observed teaching practices)	Activities: Grammar explanations, exercises from the course book	Students benefit more from exposure to the target language than from listening to grammar explanations.	Those students who use English in class benefit more from his lessons.
CELTA course	GTT: Presenting verb tenses in a table, highlighting that there are only three tenses and the different aspects of these tenses.	Helps students understand the grammar point	-

## 7.2 Teaching Experience

### 7.2.1 Overall experience with language students

Rudy had taught English for 9-10 years. He gained all his teaching experience in the UK teaching English language classes to adult learners. He taught different levels from beginner to proficiency. When he was a novice teacher, he taught Polish monolingual classes for six months, he explained, but ever since he had only taught multilingual classes. Regarding the advantages of teaching adult, multilingual classes, he said:

(...) There's the huge advantage (...) they have to communicate in English (...) it's a multinational class you've got a person from Japan sitting next to you the only common language you know is English. (...) Because mostly people who come here they want to be able to communicate. (...) a lot of them are not really interested in learning grammar, they just want to be able to communicate and go to Tesco and ask for something if it's not on the shelf (BI).

Therefore, his students' language background and needs seemed to define the focus of Rudy's classes: Rudy seemed to believe that he needed to focus on preparing his students for real-life discourse. Rudy could see a potential difficulty with teaching such classes.

(...) once I remember a situation in class when there was a Jewish girl from Israel and paired up with a German girl which (...) considering the history it's not... (...) it came to my mind (...) but I said let's see what's going to happen (...) And they became best friends. (...) Maybe the cultural differences sometimes can be a problem but that's only hypothetical thing because that has never happened in a class (BI).

Although Rudy did not need to face any cultural issues in his teaching context, he seemed to be aware that cultural differences could make teaching multilingual classes challenging.

### 7.2.2 Tower Language School

Rudy had been teaching at Tower Language School for 5 years. He seemed to enjoy working there; he said that '(...) this is actually the first job when I'm not stressed' (BI). There were a lot of opportunities for professional development (e.g. online courses, seminars, teaching observations), Rudy said, and 'it's up to us if we want to do it or not' (BI). However, due to his busy teaching schedule, Rudy explained, he had not been able to take advantage of most of these opportunities. Rudy appeared to believe that his students were also satisfied with the school.

(...) they keep coming back (...) they don't have to be here it's just they come when they want to and if they want. (...) So that gives me an idea .... and I can see that they are learning something I don't think it's because of my brilliant teaching, it's because they practise a lot in the class (BI).

Rudy described the school's teaching approach as 'eclectic randomization (...) which means let's see what happens, as long as you talk it's fine' (BI). Therefore, he believed that although the school did not follow any particular teaching methodology, there was an emphasis on verbal communication. The teachers followed a set syllabus based on the course book (e.g. *New English File, Headway*), Rudy explained, but if they felt that what the syllabus suggested was not going to work, they could change the lesson content and cover it some other time. In addition, the teachers were also advised to use additional materials, but they had to 'make sure that students are happy' (BI). Therefore, Rudy believed that the school was flexible regarding the use of teaching methods and the choice of lesson content as long as the students were satisfied. The following passage provides evidence of how focusing on student satisfaction impacted on Rudy's teaching.

(...) They influence my teaching in 90% of times (...) I try to respond to their needs; so if for example today we were supposed to talk about the weather but someone asks well actually yesterday's subject I didn't understand quite well so can we just try to can we repeat once again. Then I say to the other students so okay, so shall we do it? Usually more than one person wants to do it. Okay keep the weather talk about what we did yesterday again (BI).

Therefore, Rudy's priority was focusing on his students' needs; he was not worried about following the syllabus. At Tower Language School, Rudy explained, teachers needed to be flexible. The school allowed 'continuous enrolment'; therefore, new students could join any time of the year (BI). In addition, certain students were often unable to attend every class because of their other commitments; hence the number of students in class often fluctuated. This seemed to have a great impact on Rudy's beliefs about lesson planning and using teaching materials.

(...) you have to stick to the things that can be easily changed. Because I have a handout (...) but I see that yesterday no one came (...) So I changed it. That's why

I do not prepare anything fancy because it takes a lot of time and it might be totally useless (BI).

Rudy believed that he had to be flexible in his lesson planning and use teaching materials that could easily be adapted to the classroom situation.

At his upper-intermediate class Rudy mainly followed course books; however, he did not need to follow one particular book. He said 'I've done quite a lot of books like Inside Out, Global, Headway (...) if I think this bit is better explained in Headway. (...) I'm gonna make copies and make it from Headway' (BI). Rudy started his lessons with grammar or vocabulary, he explained, because he considered these more cognitively challenging than doing listening and speaking activities:

(...) At first while they are still not sleepy we do some grammar or vocabulary that usually until the break time or maybe little bit before and then after the break it's just more like listening, speaking, communication (BI).

Rudy also prepared his students for different language exams, such as Cambridge Advanced, First Certificate and IELTS. Exam preparation seemed to influence Rudy's choice of teaching materials.

(...) I know that a lot of students in my group at some points want to do these exams so (...) I just take one part of... I like the part four of first certificate and Cambridge exam which is Transformations. Because I remember that helped me a lot in revising and understanding so (...) if I don't have any particular structure to discuss (...) because that revises everything even if there is a structure which we have not or had not talked about... but as I've said i+1. (...) Try to figure this out, if not, I can tell you but maybe the person next to you knows (BI).

To Rudy, using exam exercises was a form of revising grammar and introducing new structures to students. He believed that students benefitted from doing these exercises because he had found them helpful himself as a learner. Exam preparation also had an impact on Rudy's self-efficacy beliefs.

(...) the reason why I think what I do is okay is because surprisingly or not quite a lot of my students pass the exams they want to do. FCE I prepare them they pass they want to do CAE, I prepare them, they pass...not all of them because I'm not that great but I'm happy with the number (BI).

Rudy seemed to use the number of students who passed the above language exams for measuring his self-efficacy. He appeared to be confident about the effectiveness of his teaching because he was satisfied with the number of students who had passed the exams.

Table 28: Impact of gaining teaching experience on Rudy's beliefs

Occurrence	Grammar activities/GTTs	Beliefs about grammar activities/GTTs	Other beliefs
Overall teaching experience	-	-	<p><u>Beliefs about students:</u></p> <p>Advantages: adult, international students want to focus on communication not on grammar; they can only use English to communicate</p> <p>Disadvantages: teaching multinational classes can be challenging because of the cultural differences between students</p>
Tower Language School	Exam preparation exercise: transformations	They help students revise grammar and introduce them to new grammar structures	<p><u>Beliefs about teaching at TLS:</u></p> <p>Teachers do not need to strictly follow the syllabus, they need to focus on oral communication and student satisfaction</p> <p>Teachers need to be flexible in their lesson planning and use of teaching materials – due to continuous enrolment and fluctuating attendance</p> <p><u>Beliefs about learning:</u></p> <p>Learning grammar and vocabulary are more cognitively challenging than doing speaking and listening activities</p>



### 7.3 Beliefs about grammar, grammar learning and grammar teaching

#### 7.3.1 Beliefs about grammar

In Rudy's understanding grammar is

a kind of scaffolding. (...) you need a scaffolding when you build a building right? But when the building is finished, what happens with the scaffolding? (...) you need grammar when you try to improve yourself. (...) if I worked for example (...) in the office writing letters (...) I would be using Present or Past Perfect in the letters exactly the same way but I would just forget the name of it. (...) that's how I perceive grammar. You need it when you learn but then you forget it when you know it (BI).

To Rudy, the role of grammar was to support learning. Rudy believed that once learners were able to use a grammar structure, their knowledge of grammar became internalized, and it was no longer the focus.

Although after achieving fluency Rudy did not consider having declarative grammar knowledge important, he acknowledged the importance of this type of grammar knowledge during the process of language acquisition. He described this function of grammar as a 'monitor' (BI).

(...) It's just that it's like your personal teacher who tells you what is correct and what's not. (...) So because that helps in acquisition because if there's a sentence and if you know grammar you know if that sentence is correct or not. And you like the sentence and you remember it. If it's not correct, you won't remember that. (...) And grammar helps you to determine what it is. So that's another function of grammar (BI).

Rudy believed that grammar facilitated the process of language acquisition by helping students select which structures were grammatically correct. He also believed that students selected which sentences to remember based on the perceived grammatical accuracy of these sentences.

As highlighted above (section 7.1.2), Rudy found Krashen's theories (1981) very influential during his teacher training. The wording and the content of his comments suggest that his beliefs about grammar also seemed to be influenced by these theories. This is evidence of the impact of his teacher training on the development of his beliefs about grammar.

#### 7.3.2 Beliefs about grammar learning

To Rudy, grammar learning is 'a necessity that cannot be avoided' (BI). Although he believed that it was 'not the main focus of language learning', he considered it 'one of the five skills you need to have' (BI). These five skills ('grammar, speaking, listening,

writing, reading'), Rudy explained, 'have to come together, work together' (BI). Therefore, Rudy believed that grammar was integrated with the other language skills. Despite this, he did not particularly enjoy it. He described grammar learning as 'annoying' (BI).

Interestingly, Rudy's beliefs about grammar learning were strongly related to his beliefs about promoting fluency. He believed that 'fluency comes with creating verbal habits (...) So the more verbal habits you have, the less grammar you need' (BI). This suggests that, to Rudy, grammar was a tool that students only needed until they achieved fluency.

### 7.3.3 Beliefs about grammar teaching

Rudy did not seem to enjoy teaching grammar and described it as 'annoying' (BI). Teaching grammar was, he believed, 'a necessary thing you have to do', but he tried to 'do other things as much as possible' (BI). Despite his negative attitude towards grammar teaching, he said that he taught some grammar at every lesson.

If there's nothing that is in the book (...) I just do some random things for example regarding prepositions or just something that we did three weeks ago. (...) Because it's revision because they need to learn new things but at the same time they have to remember the old things (BI).

Therefore, to Rudy, making sure that his students remembered the grammar structures they had previously learnt seemed to be important.

Rudy also appeared to hold different beliefs about teaching grammar at different levels.

I think when it comes to lower levels you have to do more work in the class. (...) When it comes to higher levels you do more work before the class. (...) I'm talking about me as a teacher. (...) Basically the higher levels have got some more difficult grammar structures. So you need to prepare. (...) Okay not now, unless I'm teaching proficiency (...) because sometimes you just tend to forget things. But when it comes to let's say beginners to upper intermediate no but you definitely need to know how to say (BI).

Therefore, to Rudy, the challenge at higher levels was constantly refreshing his knowledge about grammar, whereas at lower levels he had to work more on the pedagogical techniques that he used for making grammar content accessible to his learners.

Regarding his self-efficacy beliefs related to grammar teaching, Rudy noted that he found prepositions and articles challenging to use and teach (BI).

Because it is illogical the prepositions and the... articles definitive, indefinite articles there is no single way (...) to explain it. (...) Also using them is challenging as well so it's teaching and using (...) Because I think using is more challenging than teaching. Because teaching you can have some explanations but most often they don't work (BI).

Having difficulties with using and teaching these structures shaped Rudy's beliefs about them. He believed that they were 'illogical' and challenging to explain (BI). In addition, Rudy also believed that teaching subjunctives was difficult. Regarding his knowledge of other grammar structures (e.g. tenses, reported speech), he seemed to be confident.

#### 7.3.4 Beliefs about GTTs

Rudy's description of his previous grammar teaching experiences shed some light on the kind of grammar teaching techniques he used, and the beliefs he held about certain techniques. In general, he believed that the effectiveness of a grammar teaching technique depended on the context where it was used. 'For one class that thing is going to work brilliantly, for another, they are going to fall asleep', he said (BI). Therefore, Rudy said he chose 'them randomly and [saw] what's best at the moment' (BI). His selection and use of grammar teaching techniques would depend on his students' level of English. At beginner level he would use more visual grammar teaching techniques (e.g. drawings, acting out), Rudy explained. However, at higher levels he would rather discuss grammar with his students.

When talking about his previous grammar teaching experiences, Rudy often mentioned using elicitation in different ways. First of all, he often used a grammar activity with his class called the 'bomb game', he recalled (BI). The purpose of the activity was to answer Rudy's questions about grammar before the bomb exploded (which was a toy that imitated the sound of explosion). This seemed to be a way of eliciting what the students knew about certain grammar structures. In addition, Rudy used elicitation during exercises. He '[threw] some random questions which [were] not in the exercise', in order to 'wake them [the students] up', Rudy explained (BI). Also, before discussing a grammar structure he would encourage his students to ask other students about the grammar point:

Okay, ask the person next to you what do you know about it [the grammar point]? Have you heard about it [the grammar point] ? Have you got an experience? You like it you don't like. Later we do a bit of a summary so some people know something about it some people don't (BI).

This also appeared to be a form of elicitation, where the students elicited grammar from each other. Moreover, if one of his students had a question about grammar, Rudy would try to elicit the answer from other students and ask them to explain the grammar point. He provided the following rationale for doing so: 'it's revision for that person [who explains the grammar point] and learning for the other person, (...) talking time' (BI). Furthermore, 'it creates (...) good atmosphere in a class', Rudy added. He believed that this technique

promoted collaborative grammar learning, gave students a chance to practise speaking, and created rapport among them.

Rudy also mentioned a grammar teaching technique especially for teaching conditionals.

For conditionals for example what I do (...) is that you have a situation write a conditional. That's a typical for conditionals. But I reversed it. I give them conditional and now think what happened. (...) I give them a handout. For example ten conditionals on the handout and now your job is to think about what actually happened. Because conditionals it's unreal, opposite to what happened or what happens (...) Based on the conditional because it helps to understand the reason why you need conditionals, not how to do the exercise (BI).

He believed that asking students to read conditional sentences and guess what they mean helped them understand the rationale behind using conditionals. Rudy decided to reverse the exercise because he noticed that students often knew how to do the grammar exercises, but not how to use certain structures.

In order to revise verb tenses Rudy said he used the following technique:

(...) you put (...) one sentence on the board yes and then you put tenses Present Simple, Continuous, Past Simple, Continuous all those that had been known and maybe some of them that they don't know, it's i+1, and what I ask them to do is not to write but think about how the sentences would look like in Present Continuous, for example, question. So I will show it to you, how it works. She + letter + write. (...) the chunks of the sentence and then you go Present Simple, Continuous, Past Simple, Continuous (BI).

To Rudy, asking students to change sentence chunks into different tenses did not only help them revise grammar, but also seemed to be a way of pushing them further and introducing them to new structures.

#### **7.4 The relationship between Rudy's beliefs and practices**

Appendix 16 shows that Rudy used different grammar teaching tools to make grammar content accessible to his learners. He mainly used rule explanations, which he often combined with exemplification and elicitation. Occasionally he used synonyms, error correction and comparisons between grammar structures. His rationales for using these techniques shed light on the relationship between his beliefs about GTTs and his practices. In addition, the data show that both internal and external influential factors impacted on the relationship between his beliefs and practices. In the following sections I will discuss these in detail.

### 7.4.1 Rudy's beliefs and practices about GTTs

#### 7.4.1.1 Beliefs and practice about verbal and written rule explanations

Verbal and written rule explanations were the most frequently used grammar teaching tools in Rudy's observed practices. His rule explanations were characterised by frequent use of metalanguage. His rationale for using metalanguage revealed that he viewed teaching metalanguage as a grammar teaching tool.

(...) I think it's sometimes good to know some words like *perfect infinitive* (...) later they will hopefully know the word so I don't have to do it again. (...) Plus that this is how it's explained in other books so some of them want to do it on their own, in their free time so if you read the explanation and you don't know what perfect infinitive means then it will kind of difficult to understand the idea behind it (...) Instead of just explaining that I'm using 'do' which is just a verb but it's not like a normal verb, it's a special verb, it's a helper verb I can use auxiliary. It makes it easier. (...) Make it more efficient, do it quickly, hope to use it not to spend too much time talking about it (SRI1).

Using metalanguage made teaching grammar quick and efficient, Rudy believed. In addition, it supported students' grammar learning outside the classroom. Data from the scenario-based interview provided further insights:

I don't need them to know it's called lexical, I just need them to know what it means. This is the lexical verb which means it's the basic verb. This is auxiliary which means you can't change it. (...) You don't need to know all the names as long you understand what they mean' (SBI).

This suggests that Rudy did not expect his students to memorise metalanguage expressions, but he believed that understanding them promoted students' learning.

Rudy often used verbal rule explanations to make grammar content accessible to learners. For example, he started one of his lessons with a Cambridge First Certificate exam exercise. He was checking the exercise with his students and came across the following sentence: 'Track days are not a competitive event, people go for the pure enjoyment of driving' (O2). One of his students seemed to have a problem with understanding the word enjoyment; therefore, Rudy provided the following rule explanation:

(...) Because *enjoy* is not really a noun, we need a noun in this case, because *enjoy* is a verb. (...) *Pure enjoyment*. In this case *pure* is an adjective, so that gives us an idea that the next word would have to be a noun. If, for example instead of *pure* you would have *purely*, an adverb, ok then the next word would be a verb, so then *enjoy* would be ok, *purely enjoy* sg. But, because *pure* is an adjective in English language adjectives always go before nouns, which I know, can be confusing. I guess in Portuguese definitely no, I don't know in Spanish the adjectives go? (O2)

Regarding his use rule explanations Rudy shared the following:

(...) I can explain it, it's no problem. Another thing is if the person is going to understand it. Because I explain it based on my own experience but my experience, can be different than others of course. You can't get into a person's head and see what they've got and then to the explanation specifically for them. So this is the main problem of language teaching anyway because everyone has got a different experience, different knowledge, so for some people your explanation is okay because they've got those particular pieces of knowledge necessary to understand it. Whereas for others, it's not because they had different experiences (SRI2).

Rudy believed that students had to have certain knowledge and experience in order to understand rule explanations; therefore, this technique did not promote every students' learning. Interestingly, believing that rule explanations were not effective with all students did not stop Rudy from using them in the classroom.

In another lesson whilst Rudy was discussing a grammar activity with his students, one of them said *childrens* instead of *children*. Rudy corrected the grammar error and provided the following explanation:

(...) it is *children* without the *s*. I think idea is about this *children*, why one *child*, two *children*? One *table*, two *tables*, not *tablen*. But I think historically that was the plural form of nouns, because for example, if sometimes you can hear the older movies like Robin Hood or something, instead of saying *brothers* they say for example *brethren*. (...) Yes, but many many hundreds of years ago that was the plural form. So maybe that will help you understand why we say children (O4).

Regarding his rule explanation about the Old English plural forms, Rudy shared:

(...) Sometimes it's good to know things like this in conversation with other people  
(...) This information is not useful in terms of grammar, but it's just something to learn about language, that it's changing and evolving (SRI4).

Although during the lesson Rudy told his students that he talked about the Old English plural to help them 'understand why we say children', he did not believe that the explanation he provided promoted his students' grammar learning (O4). However, it enriched students knowledge about languages, he believed, which could be useful in social interaction.

Rudy also used written rule explanations in his grammar teaching practices. For instance, in a lesson on quantifiers he gave typewritten rule explanations to his students to start with and asked them to read through the rules. Then, he gave an opportunity for his students to ask questions about the rules they had read, which developed into a grammar-focused class discussion. Rudy's rationale for using these techniques provides insights into his beliefs about them.

(...) sometimes it's easier, especially with quantifiers, (...) to explain particular examples and if you have particular questions rather than me, the teacher saying everything about it and then the students get lost and probably bored and won't get the information that they actually need. (...) That's why I think it's better to... if you ask questions and I can answer a particular question rather than give the whole

piece of information again. (...) if you have something specific (...) you don't understand, the question is simple (...) so if you have something in front of your eyes. 'Ah that part I do not understand' (SRI4).

To Rudy, one of the disadvantages of verbal rule explanations was that they did not focus on the information his students needed. On the other hand, written rule explanations provided an opportunity for students to identify what they found challenging about the grammar structure. In addition, encouraging students to ask questions after reading rule explanations helped Rudy provide more tailored explanations. He believed that this way it was more likely that students got the information they needed about the grammar point. Rudy noted another benefit of using the above techniques:

A: I was just wondering, is this how you've been always doing it? That you gave (...) a written explanation (...) to the students and then you get them to ask questions (...)?

R: Yes because it gives more opportunity to talk I think, this is the point. Because of course I can give rules and they can do exercises that's fine but it's not gonna help in basically getting the need to communicate because that's just ability of doing exercises (SRI4).

Using written rule explanations followed by a grammar-focused discussion provided students with an opportunity to practise speaking; therefore, they developed their ability to communicate, Rudy believed.

Rudy also used handwritten rule explanations on the board combined with verbal rule explanations and examples in his observed practices. This was the case, for example, when he taught adjectives. In a previous lesson Rudy's class had requested an explanation about how to use adjectives correctly, which Rudy decided to postpone and dedicate a lesson to. Rudy started this lesson by asking his students to decide whether the adverbs *very* and *absolutely* could be used with extreme or gradable adjectives. He also provided the following rule explanation: 'please remember, *very* with gradable, *absolutely* with extreme' (O3). Then, he wrote the following rule explanation and an example on the board, which he also explained verbally.

Personal opinion	Beautiful
Size	Huge
Age	Very old
Shape	Princess cut
Colour	yellow
Origin	African
Material	Diamond
<b>Ring</b>	

Figure 11: Adjective order

Rudy's rationale for teaching adjectives a few lessons after the students had asked him instead of engaging in impromptu grammar teaching provided further insights into his beliefs about using exemplification and giving rule explanations. '(...) you can always give explanation but sometimes you have to think about good examples', he explained. Therefore, giving rule explanation did not require any preparation, Rudy believed.

Regarding his use of written rule explanation and an example (in a table format) on the board, Rudy said:

(...) I just wrote it down on the board because the rule is quite long so if I just said it they might not remember everything (...) but if I write it down, I think they (...) might take a note of something and maybe they will remember it. (...) I didn't pay too much attention to it [the rule explanation] in general. I think the only thing I pointed out was the personal opinion because that's usually that goes first and if you put it in a different way, it just doesn't sound right (...) it was a kind of emergency rule. If they ask me, I can give it to them. Probably they hadn't asked me, I wouldn't have done this (SRI3).

Although Rudy provided a detailed written rule explanation on the board followed by a verbal rule explanation, his rationale shows that he did not consider this rule very important. He seemed to believe that this rule was too long to remember without giving a written rule explanation on the board.

*Table 29: Rudy's beliefs about rule explanations*

<b>GTTs</b>	<b>Beliefs about GTTs</b>
Metalanguage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• quick</li> <li>• efficient</li> <li>• supported students' learning both in class and outside of class time</li> </ul>
Verbal rule explanations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• students needed knowledge and experience to be able to understand them</li> <li>• did not promote every student's learning</li> <li>• required no preparation (from the teacher)</li> </ul>
Verbal rule explanation (about Old English plural forms)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• did not promote students' grammar learning</li> <li>• enhanced students' knowledge about languages, which could be useful in social interaction</li> </ul>
Typewritten rule explanations + grammar focused discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• gave students an opportunity to identify what they found challenging about grammar structures</li> <li>• enabled Rudy to provide more tailored grammar explanations</li> <li>• gave an opportunity for practicing speaking</li> </ul>
Handwritten and verbal rule explanations + examples (adjectives)	not an important rule



## 7.4.1.2 Beliefs and practice about exemplification

Rudy extensively used exemplification in his observed grammar teaching practices, which he always combined with other grammar teaching tools, most often with rule explanations and elicitation. For instance, when teaching modal verbs, he gave examples, made comparisons between them and created a situational context for some of the examples:

R: (...) But *must* is I think the most tricky one in this case. Think about a sentence with the verb *must*: *I must study to pass the exam*. What does it mean *must* in this context?

St A: Aa...you have to do it.

St C: If you want to pass.

R: It is more like need to, so it is more like obligation, yes? So *I must study*, because if I don't I will not pass, right? So, it is an obligation in this case. (...) Or if you see a handsome man getting off the Mercedes in a beautiful suit and you think what? - except from is he married – with modal verbs?

St D: He must be rich.

R: He must be rich. In this case what is the meaning of *must*?

St E: Probability?

R: Yes, a strong probability. You're basing your opinion on what you can see: so he must be rich, because he's got a Mercedes, he's got a nice suit, so he must be rich (O1).

Regarding his use of examples, Rudy said: 'for some people it's much easier to understand examples than the explanation (...) sometimes there are structures which are much more difficult to explain but when you see the example, I mean suddenly it becomes clear.' (SRI1). Some students found examples easier to comprehend than rule explanations, Rudy believed. In addition, in the case of certain structures he found providing an example easier than giving an explanation. Moreover, Rudy seemed to view exemplification as a necessary step in the process of grammar teaching.

(...) if you don't give an example, it's like you're not closing the whole process of explaining because usually when explanation then probably people will expect some kind of example just to prove what we've been talking about was true (SRI1).

Therefore, to Rudy, giving examples was also a strategy for demonstrating that his explanations worked.

In some cases Rudy did not only provide an example sentence, but also created a situational context for the example. His rationale for using this technique provides further insights into the relationship between his beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and his grammar teaching practices.

(...) Beause English is all about the context. Context helps you understand things, especially with modals (...) they can mean something different depending on how they are used. Yes, just to help them understand that *must* can have three different functions. (...) usually you say something because you can see something

happening in front your eyes or related to something that had been said before. So everything has some kind of context. So without a context it would be difficult if not impossible to understand the meaning of “must” in that particular situation (SRI1).

Providing examples in context promoted students’ understanding of the grammar point, Rudy believed. In addition, he also believed that understanding modal verbs without a situational context was difficult, because language was usually used in context.

In another lesson on the language of hypothesising Rudy used example scenarios (O6). His students did exercises for practising the grammar of making wishes. When checking one of the activities, the students seemed to struggle with understanding the difference in meaning between the different grammar structures used to express wishes. Rudy provided the following example scenarios:

(...) Ok, let’s say Student D at work you’ve got a very annoying customer. You don’t like him, but he likes you. This guy annoys you, but he always comes to you. It happens once, it happens twice, it happens three times, and then you talk to some of your workmates and say: *I really wish he wouldn’t come to me all the time*. Because it’s annoying, yes? Or with au-pairs: *I wish children would not behave like that*. Because sometimes it’s annoying, yes? *I wish they didn’t behave like that* when I’m just calm and relaxed and I’m just giving a statement. And now they had just really annoyed me and it happened many times, so *I wish they would not do it*, because it is very annoying. Understand [Student A]? (O6)

Rudy’s comments on his use of example scenarios shed light on his beliefs about this technique:

(...) I think it’s always the best to explain something which is relevant rather than some hypothetical sentences because that probably helps (...) with understanding so that’s why I chose randomly Student D. (...) because she just recently told me because she’s recently got a job, so she can have those kind of situations (...) Other people know that Student D has got a job, so it’s easy... the context was simple for everybody. To understand. (SRI6)

Providing an example scenario which was relevant to students and could have happened in a context his students were familiar with helped them understand the grammar point, Rudy argued. In addition, the scenarios he explained were simple and easy to understand, he believed. To Rudy providing examples in a situational context helped students understand how the grammar point was used in real situations.

(...) when you use language you use language as a response to a particular situation which happens now or happened before or depends. And that’s how I want them to use it, so that’s why I try at least to give that kind of examples (SRI6).

His rationale for not engaging in impromptu grammar teaching when his students asked questions about adjectives and planning a lesson on adjectives instead sheds light on another belief about exemplification:

Because some examples are better than the others if I know them offhand, we can do it straight away but if sometimes you need more examples, so then I think about

it and do it the next day or next week (...) it depends on the structure really I think it's quite important for example the difference between Present Perfect Simple and Continuous. Because some examples are, I mean, they show the difference better than others. (SRI3).

Therefore, providing examples which worked effectively required preparation, Rudy believed.

Table 30: Rudy's beliefs about exemplification

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs
Exemplification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• finding good examples required preparation</li> <li>• some students found them easier to understand than rule explanations</li> <li>• sometimes providing an example was easier than giving an explanation</li> <li>• a necessary step in the process of grammar teaching: a way of showing that his explanation worked</li> </ul>
Examples in context (scenarios)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• enhanced students understanding of grammar</li> <li>• helped students understand how the grammar point was used in real-life context</li> </ul>

#### 7.4.1.3 Beliefs and practice about elicitation and concept questions

Elicitation was regularly used by Rudy for teaching grammar, which he always combined with other GTTs, mostly exemplification and rule explanations. For instance, in the lesson on modal verbs Rudy provided verbal rule explanations and elicited rules from his students.

(...) So, *should – shouldn't, must – mustn't*, so we don't put any auxiliaries, like with other verbs. If you take the verb *like*, which is not a modal verb, of course you can't say *I liken't*, you cannot do that, *I don't like coke*... But if it is a modal verb you can't say for example *I don't can't dance*, yes? What is the reason for that? Why not? (O1)

In another lesson on adjectives Rudy started the lesson with a discussion about the difference between extreme and gradable adjectives. He used elicitation and gave examples in the following way:

(...) so we have got two types of adjectives - well lots of types of adjectives - but today we are only worried about extreme adjectives and gradable adjectives. Anyone has ever heard about that difference: extreme or gradable? What basically are we talking about? Ok, let's say for example *big*. *Big* is an adjective. But, can you make something *bigger*? (O3).

Regarding his use of elicitation, Rudy shared: 'Just not to repeat the things that are obvious and just go to the things that they might have problems with, not... to say exactly what they know already. It's good for refreshing the memory, refreshing information' (SRI1). Therefore, using elicitation helped him avoid unnecessary explanations, Rudy believed. In addition, it enabled him to identify areas that his students had difficulties

with, and also provided an opportunity for assessing his students' knowledge about the grammar structure. Furthermore, he believed that elicitation also helped his students revise and refresh their knowledge about the grammar point.

When eliciting, Rudy often used concept questions in his observed practices. After a grammar activity, for instance, Rudy decided to have a closer look at one of the example sentences from the exercise and asked concept questions about it:

R: Ok, *You could go to England*. In this case what it means? Advice, suggestions...Is it ability?

Student C: Hmmm...no.

R: No, it's not. It is not ability in the past, it's a suggestion. *You could go to England to learn English*. Is it present or past? Are we talking about present, past or future?

Student A: It looks like a future. You could go to England in the future.

R: It is present, future, but not past (O1).

Rudy provided the following rationale for using this technique:

(...) Just to see if they understand it or they need more explanation because if they can answer those questions that would pretty much mean that they understand the idea. Whether they can use it or not, we don't know yet (SRI1).

Rudy believed that if his students could answer concept questions, they would have acquired declarative knowledge of the grammar point. However, he also believed that concept questions did not help him find out whether students managed to acquire procedural knowledge of the grammar point as well. This grammar teaching tool also informed Rudy's next classroom decisions; it helped him decide whether he needed to use further grammar teaching techniques. In his rationale for using concept questions Rudy drew a comparison between concept questions and rule explanations.

(...) I think once if you come up with something yourself, then you more likely to remember it. If you're just being told something (...) there's more likelihood of forgetting that. I think I always try students to come up with the use, rules if possible do it yourself rather than (...) rather than just telling them that and okay, follow the rule. (...) it's because following the rule it's just no thinking about it, it's like dreaming. When you have to think about the rule, it requires a bit more thinking, little bit more brain is involved, hopefully the understanding is better, faster (SRI1).

Rule explanations were not cognitively challenging for students, Rudy believed; therefore, they were not memorable. On the other hand, helping students discover information on their own was more cognitively challenging and, therefore, led to better and faster understanding.

Table 31: Rudy's beliefs about elicitation and concept questions

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs
Elicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>helped Rudy avoid unnecessary explanations</li> <li>helped Rudy identify areas the students had difficulties with</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• provided an opportunity for assessing students' knowledge about grammar structures</li> <li>• helped students revise and refresh grammar</li> </ul>
Concept questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• if students could answer them they acquired declarative knowledge about the grammar content</li> <li>• provided no information about whether students acquired procedural knowledge about the grammar content</li> <li>• helped Rudy decide what GTT to use next</li> <li>• more cognitively challenging than rule explanations: led to better and faster learning</li> </ul>

#### 7.4.1.4 Beliefs and practice about comparisons

Rudy used comparisons for grammar teaching purposes, although less frequently than rule explanations, exemplification and elicitation. In the lesson on modal verbs the class did a listening activity, where *had better* was used in the text. In order to check whether the students understood the meaning of *had better*, Rudy tried to elicit its meaning from them. When he realised that the students did not know what this structure meant, he compared it to *should* and *must* in the following way:

R: (...) with advice we often use *should* or we can also use *must*, yes? But we can also use *had better*. And now the question is where is *had better*? *Should*, *must*, *had better*? Where would you put *had better*? Is it stronger or weaker than *should*? Stronger or weaker than *must*?

Student A: Stronger.

R: Than?

Student A: Than *should*.

R: Yes...

Student A: But it is not stronger than *must*.

R: Yes, so it is not as strong as *must*. So *you'd better* is stronger than *should*. *Must*, *had better*, *should*, yes. It is quite a good structure, especially for au-pairs. You know, if you say *You must do sg.* it is maybe too strong. But *Ohh, you'd better wash your hands or I will tell your mum*, yes? Very useful! (O1).

During this conversation Rudy wrote and drew the following on the board:



Figure 12: Meaning line

Rudy's rationale for using the above technique provided some insights into his beliefs about it. He said: '(...) to explain the meaning through comparison. Instead of giving them explanation, a dictionary explanation. This is better', 'it works' (SR11). This shows that in

this case Rudy considered making a comparison a more effective technique than providing a rule explanation.

When teaching the language of hypothesising Rudy explained to his students that they were going to look at 'the bigger picture', not just conditional sentences (O5). Therefore, in addition to conditionals, Rudy explained wish sentences and *rather*. In order to explain conditional sentences Rudy used a large variety of grammar teaching tools: rule explanations (verbal and written), examples, concept questions and comparisons between the different types of conditional sentences and other tenses.

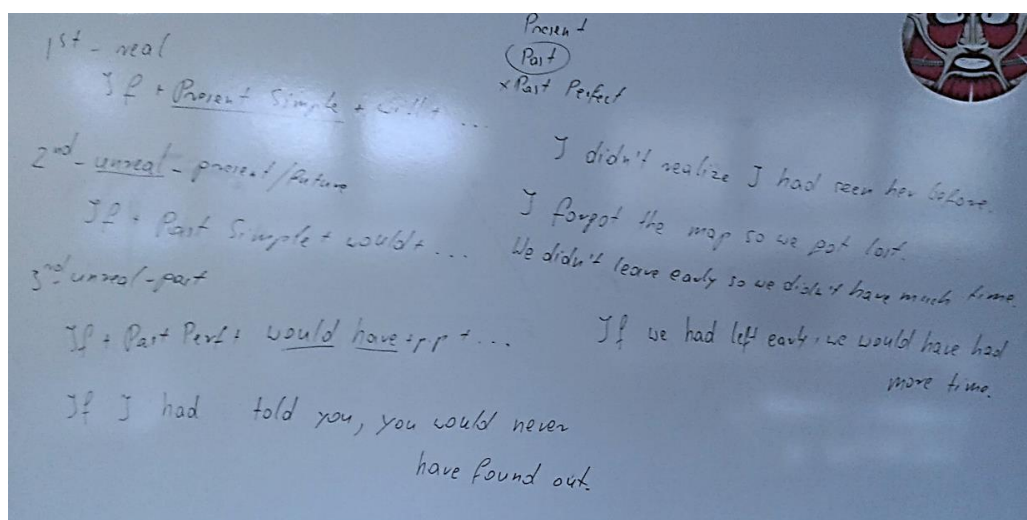


Figure 13: The grammar of hypothesising

Rudy's rationale for making comparisons between different conditional structures provides further insights into his beliefs about this technique.

(...) I think because it's important to see the difference that Second and Third Conditional are actually similar. And First Conditional, it's slightly different. And I think probably if they can understand that then they can understand the difference between second and third. (...) Because Third Conditional, it maybe looks complicated, (...) if you look at the structure. But in fact, it's the same idea as the Second Conditional but it's in the past. If they understand that, you don't need to create a new concept, you just take the concept of the Second Conditional and relate it to the past, not create a totally new concept of hypothesising in the past or something (SR15).

By making a comparison between the different types of conditionals, he could help students notice the similarities between them, Rudy believed. Noticing these similarities simplified students' grammar learning, he thought, because instead of creating a new concept they could relate the new grammar to the grammar structures they had learnt previously.

Rudy also provided the following rationale for using a combination of grammar teaching techniques for teaching the language of hypothesising:

Because that combination of different techniques it just leads to one thing basically showing that we are using tenses differently if we are not hypothesising so that's the idea that's what I want students to understand (...) That's why I gave all those examples (...) to show that it's not like *I went to school yesterday* is different from *if the weather was better today*. It's the same tense but used for a different reason (SRI5).

By using a large variety of grammar teaching techniques he was able to show his students that tenses were used differently than usual when they were used for hypothesising, Rudy believed.

On another occasion, Rudy made a comparison between the English and L1 grammar rules when teaching adjectives.

(...) it's easier to learn something if you relate it to something you already know, than to build the whole concept from the scratch (...) for example you talk about tenses (...) We've got Spanish students and let's say Polish students and you discuss present perfect continuous. It is okay for a Spanish to kind of understand it easier, because they've got some sort of idea in their own language. Whereas in Polish language we do not have the idea of perfect tense and we do not have the idea of continuous tense (SRI2).

By encouraging students to compare their L1's grammar rules to the English grammar rule he made grammar learning less cognitively challenging, he believed, because this technique allowed students to relate the new grammar to their L1 grammar knowledge.

The scenario-based interview data provide further insights:

Some languages are more similar than others. And if I can see similarity why not use it, in the end it's just they need to understand, I don't need to show that I'm a fancy teacher knowing all the grammar (SBI).

Therefore, to Rudy, pointing out similarities between languages enhanced students' understanding of grammar. Rudy's beliefs about this technique were informed by his grammar teaching practices. He started using this technique because of the following experience: 'you see people's faces and they don't understand and then you say it's like your own language, aha, they understand' (SRI2). However, 'sometimes it works again, sometimes it doesn't', Rudy added. 'I've got another Spanish student and assuming I say it's like [your] own language, they say yeah but I don't know my grammar. (...) In this case you have to find a different way because it's not gonna work', he explained (SRI2). Therefore, Rudy believed that the effectiveness of this technique would also depend on the students' knowledge of their L1 grammar.

Moreover, Rudy made a comparison between the grammar rules students learnt in class and grammar use in real-life spoken discourse. Before starting one of the activities he

planned, Rudy checked whether his students understood the meaning of *willingness*. In order to explain the meaning of *willingness*, *wanting* was used by one of the students as a synonym. Rudy explained that *want* is a state verb; therefore, it is not used in a continuous form. His students seemed confused, and Rudy also recalled hearing sentences in real-life spoken discourse, such as 'I have been wanting to'. Therefore, he decided to give the following explanation:

R: I know people do it, I'm 100% sure. I only don't know whether this is grammatically correct. I think that this is becoming a correct form. Like for example, when you talk about state and active verbs. Love, yeah? Love is a state verb, just like *like*. So theoretically, you shouldn't use it in a continuous form, yes? But go to McDonald's and you will see *I'm loving it*. And people actually started using more often...I've heard in Primark...I've heard that sentence, two ladies: A: *Uhh, I'm loving your T-shirt!* B: *Uhh, thanks!* Yes, *I'm loving your T-shirt*. Now that is grammatically...it is not right. But you know, quite often grammar and practice is two different things, yes?

St E: It also can be because of person who is talking about...who does not speak correct English.

R: Maybe. It is more about meaning definitely than grammatical correctness. (...) people try to be communicative not grammatically correct. And in this context, (...) it works. Grammar says can't do it, but it works, why not? This is the trick to remember! (O1).

His rationale for using this technique shows that to Rudy, this was a technique for making grammar content accessible.

(...) just to explain students that okay, grammar rules are important and we need to follow them but sometimes they are broken. (...) Just make students aware that grammar is one thing but (...) real life is sometimes not following the rules (SR11).

Making this comparison helped raise students' awareness of the potential discrepancy between grammar rules (e.g. in books) and grammar use (e.g. real-life spoken discourse), Rudy believed.

Table 32: Rudy's beliefs about comparisons

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs	Practice Informs Beliefs
Comparisons on a meaning line	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>more effective than rule explanations</li> </ul>	-
Comparisons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>helped students see the similarities between grammar structures</li> <li>helped students relate new grammar to what they had previously learnt</li> </ul>	-
Comparison between English and L1 grammar rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>could make grammar learning less cognitively challenging as enabled learners to relate L2 grammar to their L1 grammar knowledge</li> </ul>	Rudy saw on students' faces that they understood the grammar point when he used this technique. It was not always successful: e.g. a Spanish student did not know L1 grammar.



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• could enhance students understanding of grammar</li> <li>• effectiveness depended on students' knowledge of L1 grammar</li> </ul>	
Comparison between classroom grammar and grammar in real-life discourse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• raised students' awareness of discrepancies between the two</li> </ul>	-

#### 7.4.1.5 Beliefs and practice about synonyms

On one occasion Rudy was observed using a synonym for grammar teaching purposes. In this lesson Rudy asked his students to do an activity where they had to complete sentences with relative pronouns. When they were checking the exercise, the students could not decide when to use *which* and *what*. Rudy decided to provide a synonym for *what*, and wrote the following on the board: 'what = the thing that' (O2). Then, he used examples from the activity and elicitation:

R: *What* means *the thing that* in general. (...) This is how you can differentiate whether you should say *which* or *what*, yes? In this case when you read the sentence: *She suddenly decided to give up teaching the thing that came as a shock*. See, something is not working here, yes? That's why it has to be *which*, yes? (...) So, is it ok to say *What I like about you is your sense of humour*? Can I say that? *What I like about you is your sense of humour*, is that ok?

Student A: Yeah.

R: Yes, because you can say: *The thing that I like about you is your sense of humour*, that's ok. Can I say *which I like about you is your sense of humour*?

Student A: No.

R: No, not really, yes? (...) in this case when you are talking about defining and non-defining relative clauses it is a good idea to remember that, because that will help you to decide whether to use *what* or *which*. (O2)

Regarding his use of this grammar teaching tool, he said: '(...) I noticed that students have sometimes problems with *which* or *what*. There is the simple reason, to find out if you can use it or not. I just told them that because I think it's quite useful to know it' (SRI2). Rudy believed that this was a useful technique because it helped students decide whether they should use *which* or *what* in sentences. '(...) sometimes when you say something you also have problems with *what*, *which* but there is a simple way at least (...) up to some point get that sorted, and this is this rule', Rudy explained (SRI2). Therefore, he also considered this technique a simple way of explaining this grammar point.

Table 33: Rudy's beliefs about synonyms

GTTs	Beliefs about GTTs
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Synonyms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• useful, because it helped students decide which relative pronoun to use</li> <li>• a simple way of giving an explanation</li> </ul>
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## 7.4.2 Internal influential factors and practice

### 7.4.2.1 Beliefs about grammar content and about students' knowledge of grammar

Beliefs about grammar content and about students' knowledge of grammar featured strongly in Rudy's rationales for using grammar teaching tools. Moreover, these beliefs often occurred together in Rudy's rationales.

Rudy's comments on using metalanguage when providing rule explanations shed light on his beliefs about his students' knowledge of metalanguage: 'Because they know it so why not use it?' (SR11). Rudy believed that his students knew metalanguage expressions; therefore, using them would make grammar explanations more efficient.

In another lesson on quantifiers Rudy's beliefs about his students' knowledge about grammar influenced his use of grammar teaching tools.

(...) we talked about it already some time ago, so everybody knows something, so there is no point going through all these things, over again. It's just read it and see if there is something or anything that you cannot understand or is not clear (SR14).

Rudy believed that because they had talked about quantifiers before, all students had some knowledge about them; therefore, providing verbal rule explanations was not necessary. Similarly, his use of a synonym for teaching the relative pronoun *what* was also influenced by his beliefs about his students' knowledge of grammar.

(...) not this lesson but few lessons ago somebody asked me that and I think I gave that explanation as well but then I said that (...) we'll talk about it a little bit more when we talk about defining, non-defining relative clause. (...) for this reason I repeated it again because I remembered that there was a problem (SR12).

Therefore, Rudy believed that his students had difficulties understanding this grammar point and repeating the synonym he used before would help students understand it. The passage shows that his belief was informed by his classroom practices: the students had asked questions about this grammar point before (SR12).

Rudy's use of concept questions for checking his students' understanding of *could* seemed to be influenced by his beliefs about *could*. 'The verb *could* is kind of confusing because it can mean a lot of thing[s]', he said (SR11). Rudy's selection and use of concept questions were also influenced by his beliefs about his students' knowledge of the grammar point.

(...) Lots of people at this level know that it is in the past or very often it is taught like *could* is a past form of *can* which is not always true. But this is the first thing that probably people learn when they talk about *could*, so just to make sure that they (...) keep an open mind on it and not to put *could* into the past all the time. (...) I explained that it doesn't have to be the past, if it's the past it's an ability, if it's present or future it can be suggestion or advice, something like this (SRI1).

Students at upper-intermediate level were not usually aware that the modal verb *could* had different functions, Rudy believed.

Regarding his use of verbal rule explanations and comparisons for teaching modal verbs he said: 'in case of modals because it was a simple rule, it wasn't really necessary that was just kind of habit to do it. (...) modal plus Present Perfect, infinitive, it's not a long structure. (...) it's not necessary to use the board.' (SRI1). Modal verbs were not a complicated structure, Rudy believed; therefore, he did not think that giving a written rule explanation on the board was necessary. However, he considered making comparisons between the structures of *must* and *have to* important.

(...) during teaching. I can hear it quite often from students when we talk about modals, *must to*. Especially with *must to* because with others, not really. *Must to* is very often, I can hear that mistake. That's why I said that (...) Because *have to* is another one that you use for obligations (SRI1).

Therefore, Rudy believed that comparing *must* and *have to* was necessary because, due to the similarity between their functions, students often confused their forms. The passage also shows that this belief seemed to be informed by his classroom experiences: hearing students say 'must to' (SRI1).

On another occasion Rudy's beliefs about *had better* seemed to impact on his selection and use of elicitation and comparisons for teaching this structure.

(...) that's actually a strange structure anyway because very often people think it's related to Past perfect because it's *had* or some kind of possession but it's just a structure which really I've asked many people as well why it's *had* and not *would* but nobody actually could answer that and I still don't know why. But it doesn't really matter it's just an academic matter but for students more important is (...) what is the strength of that because *had better* is a kind of advice, suggestion, it depends. But it's not mild because *should* can be considered mild but it's not also something strong like *must* because *must* is almost the strongest one. It has to be something in-between (...) this meaning is (...) not quantifiable (...) it's not mathematics (SRI1).

Rudy did not consider the structure of *had better* problematic, but he believed that teaching students the function of *had better* was important. To Rudy, the function of *had better* was '[an] abstract idea [that] you'd have to (...) explain' (SRI1). He used elicitation and comparisons, because he believed that these techniques were making the function of this grammar content accessible to students.

When teaching how adjectives are used with nouns Rudy's use of rule explanations was also informed by his beliefs about the grammar point.

(...) there is nothing magical about this rule, just remember that. So it's nothing to understand (...) to follow, it's not complicated like Present Perfect (...) There is no point in explaining it in detail because well... no details. You just put it before the noun. So if it's a rule like that you can tell it but if it's a more complicated, then I probably ask them to try and figure out for themselves first and then do it (SRI2).

Rudy believed that the rules of using adjectives with nouns were easy to understand; therefore, his students would understand his rule explanation. However, if the rule had been more complicated, Rudy would have chosen a different grammar teaching tool.

In another lesson on extreme and gradable adjectives Rudy's beliefs about this grammar content also seemed to impact on his use of grammar teaching tools. Regarding the difference between extreme and gradable adjectives, he said:

(...) it's [the difference between extreme and gradable adjectives] not really a significant rule (...) it's quite easy. It's not, as I mentioned before Present Perfect Simple/ Continuous which requires a lot of explanation. It just requires just a few sentences, description and that's it really and a bit of practice (...) I always do that. But not because I've got a specifically prepared procedure for that. (...) But that's what usually happens I guess (SRI3).

Rudy considered this grammar point insignificant and easy to learn; therefore, he did not think that it required much explanation. Rudy seemed to hold similar beliefs about adjective order. When I asked him to explain why he would not have taught the rule if the students had not asked, he said: 'this rule is quite long and it's not so important.' (SRI3). He added: '(...) intuition is quite important here as well, because quite often people don't use this [the rule], they just use intuition' (SRI3). Therefore, Rudy believed that language users rather rely on their intuition when they use adjectives than on grammar rules.

Finally, Rudy also held beliefs about teaching and learning the language of hypothesising that impacted on his classroom decisions.

I think it usually starts with conditional because this is the easiest way to explain. Then the structures like wishes and *rather* and... Because now the students get an idea why we need that tense shift because this is an important thing. So when they understand the reason for that time change then we can try and do something a bit more difficult with that (SRI5).

When teaching the language of hypothesising the most important point was getting students to understand 'tense shifts', Rudy argued (SRI5). If students understood conditional sentences, they would also understand why tenses were used differently, he believed. Therefore, he could move on to more complicated structures. Rudy's grammar

teaching practice was also influenced by his beliefs about his students' knowledge of the grammar point.

I really like them to understand the concept of reality or unreality of using the tenses, because of course they are okay now doing the grammar exercises considering, regarding conditionals or wishes (...). what I would like them to know is that we can use it many different ways and hypothesising is an imminent part of the language of everyday situation, whether it's really hypothetical or it's just being polite or just suggesting something (SRI6).

Students knew how to use these structures in exercises, Rudy believed; however, they lacked an understanding of how these structures were used in social situations.

His rationale also shed light on how his beliefs about the language of hypothesising impacted on his use of comparisons. The language of hypothesising did not only include conditional sentences, Rudy explained, but also included other structures which had similar functions (e.g. wishes, suggestions) (SRI5). He described sentences like 'don't you think it would be a better idea to do this instead of that?' as 'it's not conditional but it's based on it' (SRI4). Therefore, to Rudy, other structures used for hypothesising were based on conditional sentences.

#### 7.4.2.2 Beliefs about grammar learning and grammar teaching

The data show that Rudy held beliefs about grammar learning and grammar teaching. These beliefs tended to occur together with the other content-specific beliefs discussed above (see section 7.4.2.1).

He considered helping his students understand how grammar structures were used in real-life discourse important. For instance, in his rationale for using elicitation and exemplification when teaching the language of hypothesising he said: 'that's why we are kind of focusing quite a lot on this, because I'd like them to understand the idea, not just to do exercises' (SRI6). This might suggest that, to Rudy, his role as a teacher was to help his students understand English in real-life discourse.

Rudy's rationale for using examples in context revealed that his beliefs about grammar learning and teaching also impacted on his classroom decisions. 'It's not about following the rules. It's about understanding what's happening. (...) So just giving rules is artificial' (SRI1). This shows that, to Rudy, grammar teaching did not mean giving rules for students to follow. Learning grammar was understanding how the grammar point was used in a situational context, he believed.

Although Rudy used a rule explanation for teaching adjective order, he did not consider this necessary.

(...) Intuition, it's very good in language (...) because grammar... it takes too long time, so sometimes you just feel that you're saying something right and sometimes you don't feel that and it's much more efficient, it's much faster if you feel it rather than try to follow (...) especially this rule, because it has like seven words (...) that you need to pay attention to (...) So as I've said because some students asked me about it, that was the only reason why we did that (SRI3).

Rudy believed that trying to follow grammar rules took a long time, whereas using intuition was more efficient and speeded up the process of learning. He described using intuition as 'just to feel that you're saying something right', which might mean that, to him, learning happened through practising speaking rather than spending time learning grammar rules (SRI3). Interestingly, these beliefs were not enacted in his practices when teaching adjective order. Rudy verbalised similar beliefs when he talked about teaching and learning the language of hypothesising.

(...) in order to understand it well or to use it well they have to be kind of automatic with it, when it comes to doing exercises which means they just need to feel it, not remember that I have to change the tense, they just have to feel, they just have to feel that they have to change. Probably, one of the ways to do it just to give them a lot of exercises, which I'm not a big fan of, that's how it worked with me so, I think that could help them (SRI6).

Rudy believed that in order to fully understand this grammar point students had to develop a sense of when the structure needed to be used. He also believed that getting students to do grammar exercises could help them develop this 'sense'.

#### 7.4.2.3 Beliefs about students' grammar learning preferences

As discussed above (section 7.4.1.1), Rudy used verbal rule explanations in his grammar teaching practices despite believing that this technique did not promote students' grammar learning. His rationale suggests that when teaching adjectives his use of verbal rule explanations was informed by his beliefs about students' grammar learning preferences.

(...) sometimes students feel better if they have rules. Whether they are going to apply it or not it's really.... in this case it's not important. But to make them feel better about it, yes, there is a rule you want to do it, go ahead. I'm sure 90% of them would not use it anyway, because they just asked me just to feel secure about it (SRI3).

His learners wanted to learn rules, Rudy believed, even if they did not intend to use them. Therefore, probably to achieve student satisfaction, Rudy decided to provide rule explanations, even though he did not believe that they were necessary. Rudy's selection and use of rule explanations (about the rules of Old English grammar) also seemed to be informed by his beliefs about his students' expectations.

(...) I was kind of expecting a question from someone but why is it *children* not *childs*, you have *tables* and not *tablren*. *Tables*. That's why I gave that information just sometimes people like clarifications. (...) Probably some of them remembered, some of them didn't remember but that's not important. The important thing is that there was a clarification, there is a reason for that (SRI4).

Rudy clarified why the plural form *children* differed from the plural form of regular nouns, because he believed that his students expected him to provide an explanation.

#### 7.4.2.4 Beliefs about learning and teaching

The data show that Rudy's use of grammar teaching techniques was also influenced by broader pedagogical beliefs. For instance, when asking students to discuss what they knew about modal verbs in pairs before giving them explanations, Rudy's beliefs about learning seemed to inform his selection of this technique.

(...) I think it's much better if you come up with the solution yourself, you remember it. If someone tells you probably you forget it anyway (...) it's better if they find out from others. (...) if I tell them it's like he's a teacher he told me. But if other people knew (...) maybe that's important, maybe I should remember that because everybody else knows (...) maybe that's actually worth remembering. But if I say then they will think ah okay one of hundred things that useless that he said today (SRI1).

If students tried to understand a grammar structure on their own, they would remember modal verbs better, Rudy believed. In addition, if students realised that their peers knew a structure that was new to them, they would be more motivated to learn it, Rudy thought. Interestingly, he also believed that if the teacher provided an explanation about a structure, students would not feel the same motivation to learn. Therefore, to Rudy, students had an influence on each other's learning.

Rudy's beliefs about collaborative learning also seemed to inform his selection and use of grammar teaching techniques. Regarding his use of written rule explanations, Rudy explained:

(...) I just give a general explanation and then ask them to read because there is more detailed points. And if you do not understand something just ask, it will be ask me or somebody next to you because I think it's always it's also good if students help themselves. (...) So it's like hundred percent more happening at that time. (...) So for the person who is explaining it's a revision for the person who doesn't know, it's... learning something new. (...) But this is it, this increases students' talking time and that's good (SRI4).

Every student benefitted from discussing written rule explanations, Rudy believed. Collaborative learning did not only promote students' grammar learning but also provided opportunities for practising speaking.

#### 7.4.2.5 Beliefs about languages and language learning

Rudy's rationale for making a comparison between L1 and L2 grammar rules also shed light on his beliefs about using translation to students' L1. He said 'I always try to encourage students not to translate before they say something because that's slows down the whole process of speaking' (SRI2). Although he considered making comparisons between the grammar of different languages beneficial, he believed that translating from their L1 affected students' fluency.

Rudy's rationale for making comparisons between the grammar students learn in class and grammar in real-life discourse revealed a belief about language learning. 'Okay, because if you know the standard then whatever comes later you can easily adjust, because you know what is correct and you know how to relate it to the real situation' (SRI1). Therefore, he believed that if students learnt official English first (as English was used in the course books), they would be able to adjust it to real-life situations.

#### 7.4.2.6 Beliefs about an activity

Rudy's rationale for getting his students to talk about modal verbs in pairs provides evidence of the influence of his beliefs about the activity on his grammar teaching practices. To Rudy the purpose of the activity was 'to gather information, just to activate some brain (...) places in the brain where information is stored. Sometimes it's working sometimes it's not, just to warm them up', Rudy explained (SRI1). Getting students to talk about the grammar point can help them activate their knowledge of the grammar content, Rudy thought. Rudy's beliefs about this activity seemed to be informed by his grammar teaching practices.

(...) it just happened one day, it worked so ok, why not. If it doesn't work, we skip it. Because (...) sometimes they turn out and they start talking about something different (...) but it's fine (...), they have to talk, language is for talking. Even if they don't do it, I'm alright with it as long as it's English (SRI1).

Rudy used this grammar activity because 'it worked' before; however, to him, the fact that his students were talking in English during the activity seemed to be more important than focusing on grammar.

#### 7.4.2.7 Rudy's PLLEs

In his rationale for his use of comparisons between *had better*, *must* and *should* Rudy talked about his PLLEs. 'While studying in Poland, that's how I understood it. That's how I put it in my head and... it works so... I can pass it to others', Rudy shared (SRI1). This technique worked for Rudy when he was learning this structure; therefore, he believed



that it would promote his students' understanding of the grammar point too. He also referred to his PLLEs when talking about how the language of hypothesising should be taught. 'One of the ways to do it just to give them a lot of exercises, which I'm not a big fan of, that's how it worked with me so, I think that could help them' (SRI6).

### 7.4.3 External influential factors and practice

#### 7.4.3.1 The social context of teaching

Rudy's rationale for making a comparison between the grammar students learnt in class and the grammar of real-life spoken discourse reveals the influence of an external factor: the social context of teaching.

(...) They [students] ask, (...) if I can explain, I do it. Very often this is the reason because we are in England, so we are teaching one thing but students can hear something different and then they come to class a bit confused. So okay why aren't we studying this way (SRI1).

Rudy's perception of the impact of the social context was informed by his classroom experiences: students asked questions in class about the language they were exposed to outside the classroom. Rudy was very conscious of the fact that his students were learning English in a context where they have to use it in their everyday lives. 'I need them to understand it [the language of hypothesising]. Because first it's very common so they have to know, they don't need to use it but they have to understand what people say' (SRI5). This suggests that Rudy's aim was to enhance students' understanding of the English they were exposed to outside of the classroom.

#### 7.4.3.2 Teaching materials and language exams

Rudy's beliefs about teaching different grammar structures at the same time (such as the grammar structures used for expressing hypothesising) also seemed to be influenced by his perception of an external influential factor: the course book. ('This is how it's structured in the book anyway. So just following (...) what's in the book', SRI5).

Getting students understand the language of hypothesising was very important to Rudy.

(...) Second thing is that most of them want to do the exam, whether it is FCE or CAE and these are the things which are very often checked. So whether it's Conditional structures even in writing, that's why I need them to understand very, very well. But the primary reason is that it's used very often (SRI5).

Rudy was very conscious of preparing his students for language exams, where their knowledge of these grammar points was often checked.

## Chapter VIII. Cross Case Synthesis

### 8.1 Pedagogical techniques

#### 8.1.1 Range of pedagogical techniques used by the teachers'

Table 34 provides an overview of the wide range of pedagogical techniques the teachers used to make grammar content accessible to their learners. It shows that every participant used verbal and written rule explanations, comparisons, elicitation, synonyms, visual aids and exemplification in their practices. However, there were differences in how often the participants used these techniques (see Appendices 14-16). Across the three cases exemplification and elicitation were used the most frequently. Exemplification and elicitation featured the most often in Katie's practices, exemplification in Josey's practices and rule explanations in Rudy's practices.

All three teachers in the present study used visual aids for grammar teaching purposes. However, Table 34 shows that there was a significant difference between the range and frequency of the visual aids they used. Katie, who taught a pre-intermediate group, used the widest range of visual aids: she underlined grammar structures, drew pictures and diagrams, and used colour coding and realia. Josey used realia and timelines for making grammar content accessible to her intermediate group. In comparison, Rudy, who taught an upper-intermediate group, was observed using visual support only once: he asked his students to place *had better* on a meaning line between *must* and *have to* on the board. This suggests that (as Josey explained in section 6.3.4) the teachers used less visual support at higher levels because they did not think that these students needed this type of aid.

The data show that the teachers used grammar teaching techniques in unique ways. Some grammar teaching techniques featured only in one participant's observed practices. Discovering grammar rules and formulas (e.g. ASI, QWASI) was observed only in Katie's practices. Extending a rule beyond its scope was used only by Josey for teaching how to grade irregular adjectives. Also, making a comparison between grammar structures on a meaning line was used only by Rudy.

Even when the teachers used the same technique, there were differences in how they used it. For instance, comparisons were used by all three teachers for grammar teaching purposes; however, there were significant differences between the grammar structures they compared and how the comparisons were made. For example, in order to teach the

structure of negative sentences, questions and short answers in past simple, Katie provided examples of each and compared them on the board. Rudy, in order to teach the meaning of *had better*, asked his students to place it on a line between *must* and *have to* to indicate to which one they thought it was closer in meaning (see Figure12). In addition, Josey drew comparisons between examples and functions of different grammar structures to teach her students the range of tenses we use to refer to the future.

The data show that differences between the types of techniques the teachers used, how frequently they used a grammar teaching technique and how they used that technique can be explained by looking at the relationship between their beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their grammar teaching practices. This will be discussed in detail in section 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4.

*Table 34: Range of grammar teaching techniques used by the teachers*

Katie (Pre-intermediate)	Josey (Intermediate)	Rudy (Upper-Intermediate)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• comparisons between grammar structures</li> <li>• categorising according to register and function</li> <li>• concept and context questions</li> <li>• demonstrations, gestures</li> <li>• discovering rules from examples</li> <li>• elicitation               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– eliciting synonyms</li> </ul> </li> <li>• error correction               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– getting students to correct grammar errors</li> </ul> </li> <li>• exemplification               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– decontextualized sentences</li> <li>– dialogues</li> <li>– short texts (about Katie or the students)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• comparisons               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– between grammar structures</li> <li>– between grammar forms in exercises and in real-life discourse</li> </ul> </li> <li>• concept and context questions</li> <li>• demonstrations, gestures</li> <li>• eliciting</li> <li>• exemplification               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– decontextualized sentences</li> <li>– scenarios</li> </ul> </li> <li>• identifying grammar points in a tape script</li> <li>• metalanguage</li> <li>• synonyms</li> <li>• extending rules beyond their scope</li> <li>• verbal rule explanations</li> <li>• written rule explanations (on the board or on handouts)</li> <li>• visuals</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• comparisons               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– between grammar in the classroom and grammar in real-life discourse</li> <li>– placing grammar points on a line between different grammar points based on their meaning</li> <li>– between example sentences</li> <li>– between English grammar rules and students' L1 grammar rules</li> </ul> </li> <li>• concept questions</li> <li>• eliciting</li> <li>• exemplification</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• formulas</li> <li>• verbal rule explanations</li> <li>• written rule explanations (on the board or on handouts)</li> <li>• visuals <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– underlining grammar structures</li> <li>– colour coding</li> <li>– diagrams</li> <li>– pictures (drawn by the teacher)</li> <li>– realia</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– realia</li> <li>– timelines</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– decontextualized sentences</li> <li>– scenarios</li> <li>• synonyms</li> <li>• using metalanguage</li> <li>• verbal rule explanations</li> <li>• written rule explanations (on the board or on handouts)</li> </ul>
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### 8.1.2 Combination of grammar teaching techniques

None of the teachers used grammar teaching techniques in isolation, but combined different techniques to make a grammar structure accessible to their learners. To Katie, combining different pedagogical techniques was a way of addressing different learning styles. She considered the grammar teaching techniques she used different learning options she provided to her students. She thus combined, for example, rule explanations with exemplification and different types of visuals (e.g. drawings, realia and diagrams). To Josey, using a combination of grammar teaching tools reinforced students' learning and made it more interesting. She therefore adopted rule explanation and exemplification together, and used complete scenarios as examples, which she explained and acted out to students.

The teachers seemed to combine some grammar teaching techniques more frequently than others. Rule explanations and exemplification were often used at the same time. Katie gave examples after her rule explanations because she thought that without examples her students would get confused. Josey pointed out that giving only rule explanations was not enough; students needed examples in context in order to understand grammar points. Rudy considered giving examples after a rule explanation a strategy for proving to his students that the rules he presented worked. This shows that, though for different reasons, the teachers considered using rule explanations alone ineffective.

When the teachers gave typewritten or handwritten (on the board) rule explanations to their students, they often decided to provide verbal explanations as well. Although, to

Josey, typewritten rule explanations were presented clearly and facilitated self-studying, she believed that they did not encourage interaction in the classroom. She therefore provided verbal rule explanations after written ones so as to create an opportunity for class interaction. Rudy, who initiated a grammar-focused class discussion after written rule explanations, saw written rule explanations as an opportunity for students to identify what they found challenging about the grammar point. To him, verbal rule explanations were not tailored enough because they focused on what the teacher considered important to know, not on what the students found challenging. However, if students read written rule explanations first and asked questions about them, Rudy thought that this enabled him to provide rule explanations tailored to his students' needs.

The examples above show that teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques is a complex and dynamic process. The teachers seemed to consider a variety of factors when selecting grammar teaching tools (e.g. their students' learning styles, making learning interesting, attending students' needs). These factors, I would like to argue, were mainly beliefs about different aspects of teaching, which I will discuss in detail in the following sections.

## **8.2 The relationship between teachers' beliefs about GTTs and practices**

The data show that all three teachers held beliefs about the grammar teaching techniques they used, which they usually enacted in their practices. For example, Katie was often observed using different visual tools to make grammar content accessible to learners, since she believed they were clear, allowed students to visualise the meaning of grammar structures and accelerated the process of understanding grammar structures. Josey's use of elicitation was grounded in her belief that this technique promoted student involvement and provided her feedback on her learner's understanding of grammar structures and on the effectiveness of her teaching. It also helped her identify gaps in students' learning, and thus provided Josey guidance on which grammar teaching tool to use next. In addition, it made students aware of what they knew, and therefore promoted self-esteem, Josey argued. Rudy's use of comparisons was also informed by his beliefs about this technique. He believed that making comparisons between English and L1 grammar could make grammar learning less cognitively challenging, as it enabled learners to relate L2 grammar to their L1 grammar knowledge. However, the effectiveness of this technique depended on students' knowledge of L1 grammar, Rudy noted.

There's evidence in the data that these beliefs often developed through engaging in teaching practice. Katie's beliefs about visual grammar teaching tools, for example, were informed and reinforced by her observation of students' reactions (they laughed when Katie used this technique), students' grammar learning progress (they understood the grammar structure quickly) and positive feedback from her students. In her rationales for using elicitation Josey referred to the impact of engaging in practice. At the beginning of her career she focused on how she taught rather than on how students learnt. After gaining teaching experience she felt a shift in her approach to teaching, as she started to focus on how learners learnt better. That was the point when she started to elicit. Rudy's use of comparisons between English and L1 grammar was also informed by his engagement in practice. He saw on his students' faces, he explained, that they suddenly understood the grammar structure he was teaching when he used this technique. However, he also came across students who were not familiar with their L1's grammar rules; therefore, Rudy concluded that this technique was not always effective.

There is some evidence in the data that experienced teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques can still be in the process of formation. Josey's rationale for using typewritten rule explanations on a handout for teaching the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives shows that her beliefs about this technique and about providing handwritten rule explanations on the board were still forming. Handwritten rule explanations promoted student involvement and created a pleasant atmosphere in class, she believed, but she had found them complicated and time-consuming previously. Therefore, in her observed practices she decided to give her students typewritten rule explanations on a handout. However, she found this technique isolating, as her students did not communicate whilst reading the rules which made her feel still unsure the effectiveness of this technique. As she was in a position where she could freely experiment with different grammar teaching techniques in her classroom practices she developed her beliefs about grammar teaching strategies through reflecting on her practices.

Moreover, the data show that the teachers did not always enact their beliefs about grammar teaching tools in their practices. For instance, when teaching adjective order, Rudy provided a rule explanation. He did not think that the rule explanation promoted his students' learning and considered the rule unimportant. However, Rudy's students had asked him about adjective order previously and Rudy felt that his students expected him to provide a rule explanation. Therefore, Rudy acted in alignment with his beliefs, but not with his beliefs about rule explanations, but with his beliefs about learners' expectations.

Broader content-specific (e.g. belief about grammar learning) and broader pedagogical beliefs (e.g. beliefs about learners' expectations) often featured in the teachers' rationales for using grammar teaching techniques. The role of these beliefs and other internal influential factors will be discussed in the following section.

### 8.3 Internal Influential factors

#### 8.3.1 Broader beliefs

As discussed in Chapters V, VI and VII, when the teachers provided rationales for choosing grammar teaching techniques not only beliefs about GTTs, but also a wide range of broader beliefs featured in their rationales. Figure 14 below shows the types of broader beliefs that impacted on the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about GTTs and their use of GTTs. The numbers in brackets indicate how many times these beliefs featured in the teachers' rationales overall. They show that there was a significant difference between how frequently content-specific and broader pedagogical beliefs featured in the teachers' rationales.

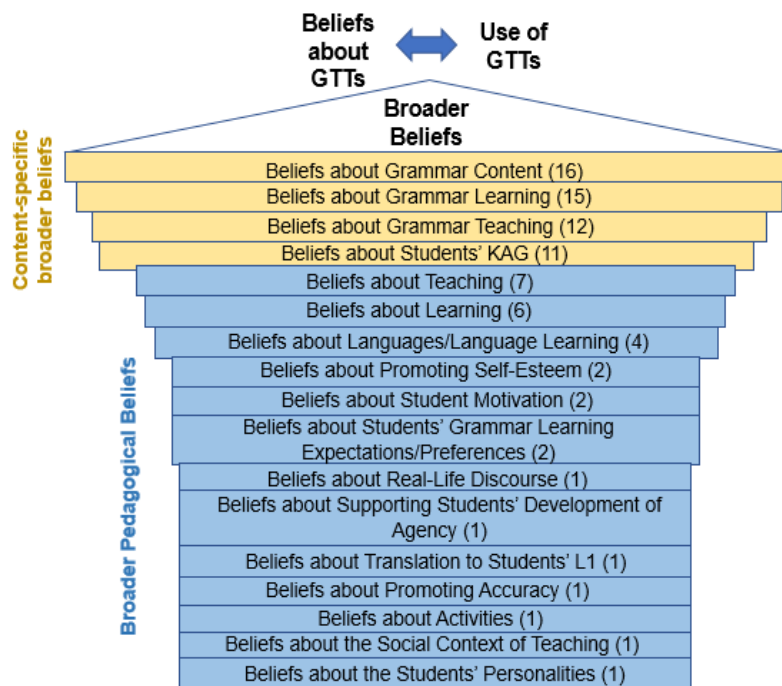


Figure 14: Broader beliefs influencing the relationship between beliefs about GTTs and use of GTTs

##### 8.3.1.1 Content-specific broader beliefs

Figure 14 that content-specific broader beliefs (beliefs about grammar content, grammar learning, grammar teaching and students' KAG) featured more frequently in the teachers'

rationales for using grammar teaching tools than broader pedagogical beliefs. Overall, beliefs about grammar content seemed to feature the most frequently across the three cases. The data provide several examples of how these beliefs influenced the teachers' use of grammar teaching tools. For instance, Katie, when teaching countable and uncountable nouns, gave an example and used realia because she considered countable and uncountable nouns difficult concepts. Josey's rationale also shows the influence of her beliefs about grammar content on her grammar teaching practices. She used different grammar teaching techniques when she taught 'straightforward/basic grammar points' and 'bitty' grammar points. If she did not consider a grammar structure straightforward, she avoided giving written rule explanations on the board or eliciting from her students. Instead, she gave her students a handout with typewritten rule explanations on. Similarly, when teaching modal verbs, Rudy's practice was influenced by his beliefs about grammar content. He considered modal verbs straightforward; therefore, he did not think that he needed to provide written rule explanations.

The teachers' beliefs' about grammar learning and grammar teaching also had a great impact on their selection and use of grammar teaching tools. For instance, Katie believed that students often forgot how to use auxiliary and main verbs in questions, negatives and affirmative sentences. She also believed that there has to be an equal balance between grammar and communication in her teaching practices in order to help her students remember and use grammar structures. Therefore, she used a variety of grammar teaching tools (when teaching how to use auxiliary and main verbs), including strategies which promoted student involvement and communication in the classroom (e.g. elicitation, getting students to correct grammar errors on the board). Similarly, Josey's selection and use of comparisons between examples of different types of conditional sentences during a speaking activity were also informed by her beliefs about grammar learning and grammar teaching. She believed that students often found conditionals difficult. She also believed that providing a quick introduction to a grammar structure was beneficial for students because they might be able to recall this when they needed to learn this structure in detail later on. Rudy's grammar teaching practices too were influenced by his beliefs about grammar learning and teaching. Rudy believed that grammar teaching did not mean giving rules for students to follow. He also believed that learning grammar was understanding how the grammar point was used in a situational context. Thus, when teaching grammar, he often gave examples which not only placed the grammar point in co-text, but also provided a situational context (Thornbury, 1999).



The findings show that the teachers' beliefs about their students' knowledge of grammar can also influence their use of grammar teaching tools. For example, Katie believed that her students did not know the differences between certain quantifiers; hence, she used exemplification and elicitation (during an activity for practising present perfect) to make sure that they understood the differences. In addition, Rudy believed that his students did not know the differences between the forms of *have to* and *must*, so he decided to make a comparison between these two. Josey also held beliefs about her students' knowledge of metalanguage that impacted on her selection and use of grammar teaching tools. For instance, she used metalanguage as a technique for making grammar content accessible, because she believed that her students were familiar with metalanguage expressions.

### 8.3.1.2 Broader pedagogical beliefs

Although content-specific beliefs featured more often in the teachers' rationales, broader pedagogical beliefs often interacted with them and influenced the teachers' use of grammar teaching tools. Amongst the broader pedagogical beliefs, beliefs about learning, beliefs about teaching and beliefs about languages and language learning were stated the most often. For instance, to Katie, teaching had to be interesting and informative; therefore, she used a variety of grammar teaching techniques to achieve this aim. Similarly, Josey considered providing a written record of grammar rules to students her responsibility. She observed that often students did not copy her explanations from the board; therefore, she decided to give them typewritten rule explanations on a handout. Rudy believed that students had to learn Standard English (as it was used in the course book) first, because after that they could more easily adjust their language use to real-life discourse. Therefore, he made comparisons between the grammar of real-life discourse and the grammar rules taught by course books.

The data also show that some stated broader pedagogical beliefs differed across the participants. For example, unlike Rudy, both Katie and Josey stated beliefs about promoting self-esteem which impacted on their selection and use of grammar teaching tools. When Katie got her students to discover grammar rules from examples, she asked them to do this in pairs in order to boost their confidence. Similarly, Josey introduced articles with a gap filling activity, because she believed that, if students were able to insert the right articles that would boost their confidence. Rudy, unlike Katie and Josey, stated beliefs about translating to students' L1, in his rationales for using specific grammar teaching tools. He encouraged his students to make comparisons between English and L1 grammar rules, but not to translate since he considered translating from

English to students' L1 detrimental to the process of acquiring fluency in English. An in-depth analysis across the participants shows, therefore, that although there were some apparent similarities in the types of beliefs the teachers held in relation to their use of grammar teaching techniques (e.g. beliefs about language learning), there were differences in the sub-types of beliefs the teachers held or in how these beliefs impacted on their grammar teaching practices.

### 8.3.1.3 Belief clusters across the cases

Appendices 11, 12 and 13 provide an overview of the types of broader beliefs that occurred together in teachers' rationales for using GTTs. Across the three cases beliefs, such as beliefs about grammar content, beliefs about grammar learning and beliefs about grammar teaching, were stated together the most often. This suggests that when teachers select grammar teaching tools, their practices are often influenced by content-specific beliefs, that is, those specifically related to the aspect of teaching they are focusing on (in this case, grammar). In addition, broader pedagogical beliefs, such as beliefs about learning, beliefs about teaching or beliefs about student motivation, often interacted with the teachers' content-specific broader beliefs. For instance, Katie used concept and context questions and elicited synonyms to teach countable and uncountable nouns. The reasons why she used these techniques were the following: 1) her students found the grammar point confusing, 2) it was important for Katie to promote her students' understanding of this grammar point, and 3) she wanted to enable her students to manipulate the language, not to use it rigidly. Therefore, beliefs about the grammar point, grammar teaching and language teaching featured together in her rationales. Similarly, Josey, elicited examples, gave rule explanations and compared present perfect and present perfect continuous structures on a timeline on the board, because 1) she felt that enhancing the understanding of grammar of those students who had missed the previous class was her responsibility, and 2) considered the two tenses very similar. Hence, her beliefs about teaching and her beliefs about grammar content occurred together in her rationale. In addition, Rudy used an example scenario for explaining the grammar of making wishes, because 1) his students knew how to build the structure of this grammar point, but did not understand its function, 2) he felt that it was his responsibility to help them understand the function of this grammar point, and 3) he believed that students could only understand this grammar point if they developed a sense of when it needed to be used. Therefore, beliefs about the grammar content, about teaching and about grammar learning featured in his rationale. These examples provide evidence that the teachers' beliefs combined in complex ways to influence teachers'

practices and that clusters of beliefs, rather than individual beliefs, motivated teachers' selection and use of pedagogical techniques.

### 8.3.2 Other internal influences

*Table 35: Internal influential factors (excluding beliefs) across the three cases*

	<b>Katie</b>	<b>Josey</b>	<b>Rudy</b>
<b>Internal Influential</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Katie's preferred learning style</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• lack of KAG</li> <li>• lack of teaching experience</li> <li>• preferred communication style</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PLLE: Rudy's experiences of learning this structure</li> </ul>

The data show that not only beliefs, but also other internal influential factors could motivate teachers' selection of grammar teaching techniques. Table 35 summarizes the types of internal influential factors (apart from beliefs) that featured in the participants' rationales. The types of influential factors seemed to be unique to each participant.

When providing a rationale for using error correction on the board for teaching grammar, Katie said she used this technique because that was the way she would like to be taught. She also believed that a technique that could promote her own grammar learning would also promote her students' grammar learning. Therefore, Katie's preferred learning style reinforced her beliefs about this technique and therefore supported their enactment in practice. Similarly, Josey referred to her preferred communication style in her rationale for using gestures and acting out scenarios. Although she was not sure whether these techniques promoted her students' learning, she used them because this was the way she usually communicated in real-life. In addition, Josey's rationales for using exemplification and a synonym for teaching *whom* show that her use of grammar teaching tools was influenced by her perceived lack of knowledge about this grammar content and her lack of experience teaching it. Since she felt she was unable to explain how this grammar point was used, she provided an example and a synonym to help her students understand it. Finally, Rudy made comparisons between *had better*, *must* and *should*, because he had found this technique helpful when he was learning these grammar points. Therefore, his *PLLE* seemed to impact on his use of comparisons.

## 8.4 External Influential factors

Table 36: External influential factors across the three cases

	Katie	Josey	Rudy
External Influential factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• availability of objects</li> <li>• course book content</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• course book content</li> <li>• student attendance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• course book content</li> <li>• language exams</li> <li>• social context of teaching</li> </ul>

Table 36 above summarizes the external influential factors to the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their grammar teaching practices that featured in the participants' rationales. In all three cases there was evidence that the course book content facilitated the enactment of the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques. For instance, Katie believed that using formulas helped students understand grammar. She explained that she had come across this technique in the course book she used and had found it helpful. Both Josey and Rudy used comparisons in their observed practices. They held positive beliefs about this technique and noted that the course books they used also promoted the comparison of grammar structures.

Some external influential factors seemed to feature in one participant's rationale, but not across the cases. For example, only Katie referred to the unavailability of objects as a potential hindrance to the enactment of her beliefs about using realia for grammar teaching purposes. Josey was the only participant who noted the impact of student attendance on her use of grammar teaching techniques. She decided to start one of her lessons with a grammar activity, which involved the use of comparisons, exemplification, elicitation, rule explanations and use of gestures, because she wanted to provide an opportunity for the students who had missed the previous class to catch up. She also thought that these techniques provided an opportunity for revising grammar for the rest of the class. Finally, Rudy referred to the impact of language exams and the social context of teaching when making comparisons between different grammar structures used for hypothesising. He taught these structures together, he explained, because he wanted his students to understand the differences between their functions. He

considered this important because these structures often featured in exam exercises and students could frequently come across them in their daily lives.

## 8.5 Summary

In this chapter I described the findings of my cross-case analysis. In summary, the following findings emerged:

- 1) The teachers used a large variety of grammar teaching techniques, often in unique ways. Across the three cases elicitation and exemplification recurred the most often, but there were significant differences in how frequently each teacher used a technique. Also, the teachers were motivated by a variety of factors when selecting a technique or a combination of techniques.
- 2) All three participants stated beliefs about grammar teaching tools. Most of these beliefs were in alignment with the teachers' use of grammar teaching tools. However, there is also evidence in the data that experienced teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools can be in the process of development. In addition, experienced teachers might act in alignment with their broader pedagogical beliefs rather than with their beliefs about grammar teaching tools.
- 3) The data show that the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools developed through engaging in practice. The teachers referred to three types of classroom experiences: a) gaining teaching experience (earlier in their careers), b) receiving feedback from students and c) observations of students' reactions, language use or progress.
- 4) The relationship between the teachers' beliefs about and use of grammar teaching techniques was influenced by a variety of internal influential factors. Most of these were broader beliefs among which content-specific broader beliefs featured more often in the teachers' rationales than broader pedagogical beliefs. Although there were similarities in the types of beliefs the teachers' held, there were many differences in how these beliefs were held in clusters and how they related to the teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques.
- 5) There is also evidence in the data that in some cases external influential factors also influenced the teachers' use of grammar teaching techniques (e.g. course book content, student attendance).

## Chapter IX. Discussion

### 9.1 RQ1: What pedagogical techniques do the teachers use to make grammar content accessible to their learners?

As discussed in Chapter VIII, the teachers used a wide range of pedagogical techniques to make grammar content accessible to their learners. The aim of this section is to discuss how these techniques compare to the grammar teaching techniques that already feature in practical handbooks or the research-based literature (see Chapter III, section 3.3.2). Every technique used by the teachers is discussed in turn, making references to how frequently they were used by the teachers.

#### 9.1.1 Exemplification

Using different types of examples as a strategy for teaching grammar seems to feature both in practical handbooks (e.g. Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 1999) and the research-based literature (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). For instance, the four participants in Johnston and Goettsch's study (2000) all agreed that examples are essential parts of grammar explanations. In the present study exemplification featured in all teachers' grammar teaching practices, and it was the most frequently used grammar teaching technique across the three cases. The data show that exemplification can be used in various ways for making grammar content accessible to learners. For instance, Katie elicited examples from students' conversations and wrote them on the board to teach her students the differences between regular and irregular verbs in past tense. On another occasion she wrote a possible conversation between herself and a friend on the board and converted it into a gap filling activity in order to show her students how the past simple is used. Josey, in order to teach grammar structures which are used to talk about the future, elicited example sentences from her students and wrote them on the board. In addition, both Rudy and Josey used example scenarios, where example sentences were placed not only in co-text, but also in a situational context (cf. Thornbury, 1999).

#### 9.1.2 Elicitation, concept and context questions

Practical teaching handbooks often recommend teachers to elicit examples from students and to ask concept or context questions to check students' understanding of a grammar point (e.g. Scrivener, 2011, Thornbury, 1999). The research-based literature also reports the use of elicitation in grammar teaching (e.g. Borg, 1998; Pahissa &

Tragant, 2009). The data provide evidence that the teachers used elicitation as frequently as exemplification. They usually elicited rules or examples from their learners or used elicitation to check what students knew about a particular structure in general. For instance, Rudy, when teaching modal verbs, started the lesson by eliciting grammar rules. Similarly, Josey, when checking a grammar activity with her class, elicited students' rationales for their answers to check their understanding of future tenses. When they wanted to check their students' understanding of a particular example where the structure was used, the teachers used more specific questions, such as concept or context questions. When teaching the differences between the quantifiers *too much*, *too many* and *too*, for example, Katie wrote an example on the board and asked concept questions (e.g. 'What do you think that means? I need to eat more?') to check her students' understanding of the grammar points.

### 9.1.3 Rule explanations and metalanguage

Rule explanations often feature both in practical handbooks (e.g. Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 1999) and the research-based literature (Borg, 1999, Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Pahissa & Tragant, 2009). The findings show that the teachers often used rule explanations in their observed practices, especially Rudy in his upper-intermediate class. The teachers tended to use this technique in three different ways: verbal rule explanations, written rule explanations on the board, and type-written rule explanations.

Both practical teaching handbooks (Hedge, 2000; Thornbury, 1999) and the research literature (Borg, 1999; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000) suggest that practitioners' views largely differ on the use of metalanguage in the classroom. Moreover, even if the teachers seem to hold positive beliefs about using metalanguage in general, they might not use it in certain classroom situations to respond to their perceptions of 'students' cognitive and affective state during grammar teaching' (Borg, 1998, p. 20). When the teachers in the present study provided rule explanations, they often used a considerable amount of metalanguage. Josey's and Rudy's rationales suggest that, to them, using metalanguage was a strategy for teaching grammar. Josey seemed to believe that metalanguage enabled students to categorise grammar points, thus enhancing their understanding of grammar. To Rudy, using metalanguage made teaching quick and efficient, and supported his students' learning outside the classroom. Therefore, the data provide evidence that using metalanguage can be a way of making grammar content accessible to learners.

### 9.1.4 Comparisons

Previous research has provided evidence that teachers often make comparisons when teaching grammar (e.g. Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Teachers are also often encouraged by practical handbooks to use minimal sentence pairs for making their grammar explanations more effective (e.g. Schellekens, 2007; Thornbury, 1999). The findings of this study show that the teachers all used comparisons in their grammar teaching practices. All teachers made comparisons between different grammar structures. For example, in order to teach the structure of negative sentences, questions and short answers in past simple, Katie provided examples of each and compared them on the board. Rudy, in order to teach his students the meaning of *had better*, asked his students to place it on a line between *must* and *have to* to indicate to which one they think it was closer regarding its meaning (see Figure 12). In addition, Josey drew comparisons between examples and functions of different grammar structures to teach her students the range of tenses we use to refer to the future.

The findings provide evidence of a very context-specific way of making comparisons. Both Josey and Rudy made comparisons between English grammar in the classroom (e.g. in the course book, exercises) and the grammar of real-life discourse which the students were exposed to outside class. Their rationale showed that the teachers identified discrepancies between how grammar was taught to students and how it was normally used in real-life discourse; therefore, they decided to make comparisons. The impact of ESOL contexts on teachers' grammar teaching practices has been acknowledged in the literature (Schellekens, 2007). For instance, it has been pointed out that in ESOL contexts students are often exposed to grammar structures outside the classroom much earlier than they would learn about them in the classroom; therefore, it is beneficial to introduce students to even more complicated grammar structures (e.g. passive voice) early on (ibid). My findings show that when the teachers found differences between the grammar they taught and the grammar of real-life discourse, they decided to make students aware of the differences and made comparisons.

The use of cross-linguistic comparisons was documented by previous studies (Borg, 1998; Pahissa & Tragant, 2009; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). The teacher in Borg (1998), for example, prompted students to refer to their L1 when learning grammar, because he had experienced that such comparisons promoted students' grammar learning. Sanchez and Borg (2014) reported that one of the teachers in their study made comparisons between the students' L1 grammar and English grammar. Using cross-linguistic comparisons as a grammar teaching technique also featured in the present study. Rudy encouraged his



students to compare the position of adjectives in English and their mother tongue. Interestingly, while the teacher in Sanchez and Borg's study (2014) used this technique with a monolingual group where she spoke the students' L1, Rudy used it with a multilingual group (similarly to the teacher in Borg, 1998) where he could not speak most of his learners' L1. This provides further evidence that the use of cross-linguistic techniques extends beyond monolingual classrooms.

### 9.1.5 Gestures and demonstrations

Using gestures and demonstrations for grammar teaching purposes is often recommended at lower levels by practical teaching handbooks (e.g. Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 1999). These techniques often feature in the SLA literature where different approaches to language teaching (e.g. The Direct Method) are discussed (e.g. Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011), but it does not seem to feature in the teacher cognition literature focusing on grammar teaching. In the present study both Katie and Josey, who taught English at lower levels (pre-intermediate, intermediate), frequently used gestures and demonstrations in their grammar teaching practices. However, these techniques did not feature in Rudy's grammar teaching practices with his upper-intermediate group. The reasons for these differences seem to be the teachers' preferred styles of communication and concerns about students' understanding of their explanations. Both Josey and Katie seemed to use gestures in daily communication (outside the classroom); therefore, using gestures in the classroom came naturally to them. In addition, all teachers seemed to be concerned that lower level students would struggle to understand their explanations. As Katie pointed out, using gestures and demonstrations was a way of getting across meaning quickly and clearly.

### 9.1.6 Visual Aids

Using different types of visual aids in grammar teaching features extensively in practical handbooks (e.g. Schellekens, 2007; Scrivener, 2011). Although less frequently, visual techniques also feature in the research-based literature focusing on grammar teaching. Sanchez & Borg (2014), for instance, reported the use of visual aids for grammar teaching purposes (e.g. highlighting information in bold, a chart on the blackboard for summarizing information). All three teachers in the present study used visual aids for grammar teaching purposes. As discussed in Chapter VIII (section 8.1.1) there was a significant difference in the range and frequency of visual aids the teachers used. While at lower levels (Katie's pre-intermediate and Josey's intermediate groups) visual aids were frequently used, Rudy (who taught an upper-intermediate group) was observed

using visual aids only once. The widest range of visual aids was used by Katie at pre-intermediate level: she underlined grammar structures, drew pictures and diagrams, and used colour coding and realia. These differences seem to occur because the teachers did not think that higher-level students needed visual support to understand grammar (as Josey explained in 6.3.4).

#### 9.1.7 Error correction

English teaching handbooks often provide practical advice to teachers on using error correction for making grammar content accessible to their learners (e.g. Scrivener, 2011; Thornbury, 1999). Error correction as a grammar teaching tool also features in the research literature. For instance, Borg (1998) reported that the teacher in his study used the analysis of learners' errors for grammar teaching purposes. One of the teachers in Pahissa and Tragant (2009) also used a form of error correction for grammar teaching purposes. Instead of providing students with the correct version, she elicited what they knew about the grammar structures and encouraged them to correct the error on their own. Although the teachers in the present study mainly used error correction for other purposes than teaching grammar content (e.g. to encourage students to monitor their own outputs, to prevent fossilisation), error correction as a grammar teaching tool also features in the data. In order to teach quantifiers, Katie put incorrect structures on the board deliberately and elicited the correct structures from the students.

#### 9.1.8 Using texts for teaching grammar

Both Hedge (2000) and Thornbury (1999) provide teachers with practical tips on how they can use texts effectively in their grammar teaching practices. In the present study, in order to teach how the past simple and past continuous are used for storytelling and story writing, Katie put a short text about herself on the board and read it out loud. She also used gestures and acted out parts of the story. As discussed in Chapter III (section 3.3.2.1), Thornbury (1999) differentiates surrounding examples with a text (*co-text*) from creating a situational *context*. Katie not only placed her examples in *co-text*, but also created a situational *context* by reading the story out loud and also acting it out. Josey, in order to create a context for present perfect (she taught them the structure at the same lesson), asked her students to underline examples of the structure in the tape script of the listening activity they did. The tape script not only acted as *co-text*, but also provided *context*, as the conversation was about the topic they had discussed at the lesson which all students were familiar with: a story of a young girl who kayaked down the Amazon River.

### 9.1.9 Synonyms

Although using synonyms for grammar teaching purposes does not seem to feature in the research literature, there is evidence of the use of similar techniques (metaphors and analogies) in experienced teachers' grammar teaching practices (Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Practical handbooks (e.g. Hedge, 2000; Scrivener, 2011) often suggest using synonyms for teaching vocabulary. The data shows that all teachers in the present study used synonyms to make grammar content accessible to their learners. They seemed to explain grammar points as if they were lexical items, which is a typical feature of the Lexical approach to grammar teaching (Harmer, 2007). For instance, when teaching quantifiers, Katie elicited a synonym for 'plenty of' from her students because she wanted them to hear more options. To explain her students what 'whom' means, Josey gave 'whose' as a synonym (notwithstanding the grammatical and semantic differences between the two). In addition, Rudy provided 'the thing that' as a synonym for the relative pronoun 'what' to make using 'what' easier for his students.

### 9.1.10 Conceptual grouping

Although course books and grammar books often tend to categorise grammar structures, practical teaching handbooks do not seem to mention categorisation as a strategy for teaching grammar. Sanchez and Borg (2014) reported that when one of the teachers in their study taught modal verbs, she grouped them into categories, such as prohibition, necessity and possibility. In the present study when Katie taught modal verbs, she also used conceptual grouping by categorising them according to function (polite offer, polite request, and suggestion) and register (formal, informal). This technique seems to enhance students' understanding of grammar by establishing links between grammar and other linguistic fields such as semantics and pragmatics (ibid).

### 9.1.11 Discovering rules

Practical handbooks (Harmer, 2007; Scrivener, 2011) often recommend letting learners discover grammar rules as an alternative to presenting rules. This technique also features in the research-based literature. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) describe this grammar teaching technique when referring to how The Direct Method suggests grammar should be taught. Nishimuro and Borg (2013) reported that one of the teachers in their study used a series of closed questions to help students discover grammar rules. In the present study Katie used a student-led way of discovery learning. She wrote incorrect sentences on the board that the students had to correct. Then they

had to discover the grammar rules in pairs, which were later discussed with the whole class.

#### 9.1.12 Formulas

In order to help students remember how a particular grammar structure is formed, course books, resource books/websites and grammar books (e.g. *Random Idea English*, 2017; Swan, 2005) often use different types of formulas. In the present study Katie, in order to teach the structure of different question types, used the formulas ASI (auxiliary verb, subject and infinitive) and QWASI (question word, auxiliary, subject and infinitive). This strategy for presenting grammar seems to feature in the practical teaching literature (Harmer, 2007), though not in the research literature to date.

#### 9.1.13 Extending rules beyond their scope

Josey, in order to explain her students what 'worse' means, graded 'bad' as if it were a regular adjective, 'badder'. Then she explained that because 'bad' was an irregular adjective, 'worse' was the correct way of forming its comparative form. Although course books (This technique has not featured either in the research literature to date.

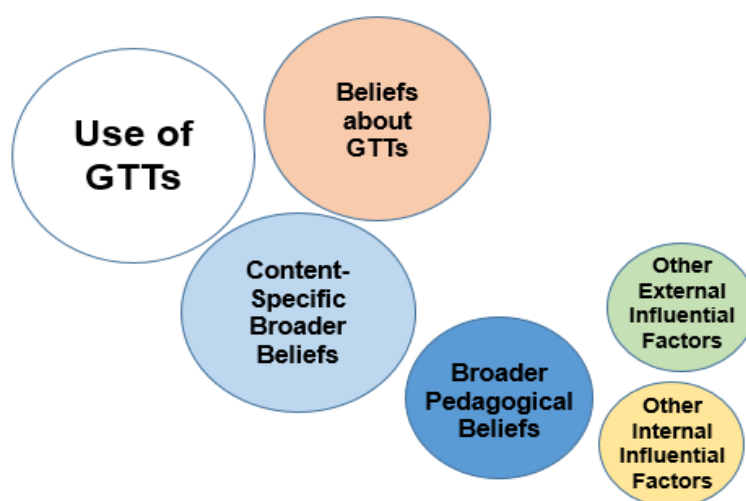
#### 9.1.14 Summary

Although some studies discuss a variety of pedagogical techniques for teaching grammar (e.g. Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Sanchez & Borg, 2014), they often do not shed light on why teachers combine certain grammar teaching techniques in their practices. As discussed in Chapter VIII (section 8.1.2), the teachers in this study never used a single grammar teaching technique for teaching a particular grammar structure, but a combination of different techniques. I would like to argue that by studying the relationship between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their use of such techniques we can uncover the reasons why teacher use and combine different techniques in their practices. This will be discussed in the following sections.

### **9.2 RQ2: In what ways are the choice and use of pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching informed by the teachers' beliefs about them? What external or internal factors hinder or support the enactment of beliefs in practice?**

As discussed in Chapter III (section 3.2.3), research on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices provides evidence that the enactment of teachers' beliefs

about one specific aspect of their profession can be influenced by a variety of internal and external influential factors (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Similarly, as I explored how beliefs about grammar teaching techniques impacted on the teachers' use of such techniques, I found that in many cases other external or internal (including other beliefs) influential factors had a large impact on the teachers' use of grammar teaching tools. Figure 15 illustrates the belief-practice relationship across the three cases. The size and distance of the coloured circles from the circle labelled as 'use of GTTs' indicate how often the three teachers stated different types of beliefs or influential factors when providing rationales for using grammar teaching tools. In the following section I will discuss the different types of beliefs and internal and external influential factors that the teachers stated in their rationales for using GTTs.



*Figure 15: The relationship between beliefs and practice (across the cases)*

### 9.2.1 The relationship between beliefs about GTTs and other content-specific beliefs and practice

As Figure 15 indicates the teachers' use of GTTs were influenced by a variety of different types of beliefs and influential factors. Previous studies show that when teachers engage in teaching content-specific beliefs often impact on their practices (e.g. Farrell & Kun, 2008). The data in the present study provide evidence that the teachers frequently stated beliefs about GTTs when providing rationales for using them in their observed practices. For instance, Katie often used elicitation when teaching grammar. In her rationales she stated positive beliefs about eliciting, such as promoting student involvement and challenging students cognitively. Similarly, Josey stated that she used exemplification often, because it helped students understand grammar by creating context for grammar

structures. Rudy also frequently stated beliefs about GTTs in his rationales for using them. He used typewritten rule explanations, he explained, because they made his explanations more focused by allowing students to ask questions (after reading the rule explanations) about the grammar content they had difficulties with.

Figure 15 shows that not only beliefs about GTTs featured frequently in the teachers' rationales, but also content-specific broader beliefs. Across the three cases four broader content-specific beliefs were identified. Two of them were *beliefs about grammar teaching* and *grammar learning*, which also feature frequently in studies on teachers' cognition in grammar teaching (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Schulz, 1996, 2001). Katie, for instance, in her rationales for using GTTs which allowed students to communicate (e.g. elicitation, analysing sentences in pairs), stated beliefs about grammar teaching (she believed in keeping an equal balance between grammar and communication). Josey, in her rationales for using short rule explanations and exemplification for teaching conditional sentences, stated beliefs about her students' grammar learning (she believed that students found conditionals difficult to learn based on her classroom experiences). Amongst the broader content-specific beliefs I also identified *beliefs about students' knowledge of grammar* and *beliefs about grammar content*. Whereas the impact of beliefs about students' abilities features both in the broader education literature (Hertzog, 2011; Mouza, 2009) and in the teacher cognition literature (Borg, 1999), to the best of my knowledge, beliefs about grammar content has not featured in any studies to date. Finally, Rudy often stated beliefs about grammar content and students' knowledge of grammar. He used concept questions when teaching the modal verb *could*, he explained, because he believed that this grammar point was confusing and he also believed that his students found it confusing (based on his classroom experiences).

### 9.2.2 The relationship between broader pedagogical beliefs and practice

As discussed in Chapter III (section 3.3.1.1), Sanchez and Borg (2014) describe a range of 'broader pedagogical concerns' that motivated their participants' selection of pedagogical techniques in their grammar teaching practices. The present study provides further evidence that when teachers are using grammar teaching techniques, they are often motivated by broader pedagogical concerns, which I identified as broader pedagogical beliefs (beliefs about all aspects of teaching). Across the three cases 13 broader pedagogical beliefs were identified (see Chapter VIII, Figure 14). Figure 15 shows that overall these beliefs were stated less frequently than content-specific beliefs, but that does not mean that they were less influential. It has been suggested that studying

teachers' content-general beliefs can allow researchers to make comparisons between teachers' beliefs at different stages of their careers or working in different discipline areas (Fives et al, 2015). In the present study the broader pedagogical *beliefs about learning* and *beliefs about teaching* were stated the most frequently; every participant stated such beliefs in their rationales for using GTTs. Other broader pedagogical beliefs (*beliefs about activities, beliefs about languages and language learning, beliefs about promoting accuracy, beliefs about promoting self-esteem, beliefs about real-life discourse, beliefs about students' personalities, beliefs about students' grammar learning expectations/preferences, beliefs about student motivation, beliefs about supporting student's development of agency, beliefs about the social context of teaching, beliefs about translation to L1*) were stated much less frequently and often occurred in only one participant's rationales (see Figure 14).

While some studies (e.g. Chan, 2011; Muis, 2004) have focused specifically on teachers' *beliefs about learning*, many studies investigating content-specific beliefs just vaguely mention them (Fives et al., 2015). In the present study both Katie and Rudy stated beliefs about learning in their rationales for using GTTs and these beliefs seemed to have an important role in their instructional decisions. In her rationale for using an activity for teaching quantifiers, where students had to correct errors and discover rules in pairs, Katie stated that one of the reasons why she used these techniques was her belief in learning through interaction. When teaching modal verbs, Rudy asked his students to summarise what they knew about modal verbs in pairs. His belief about learning informed his instructional decision. He believed that if students tried to understand modal verbs without the teachers' help they would remember them better.

Broader beliefs about teaching were explored by several previous studies (e.g. Pederson & Liu, 2003; Snider & Roehl, 2007). These studies investigated what teachers considered good practice across a range of different content areas (Fives et al., 2015). Although I did not focus on teachers' beliefs about teaching in particular, these beliefs often surfaced in teachers' rationales for using GTTs. Katie, for instance, explained that another reason why she used GTTs which required students to interact (e.g. sentence analysis in pairs) was that she believed that silence in class was not teaching. Josey also stated beliefs about teaching in her rationales. For instance, she explained that one of the reasons for using typewritten rule explanations was that she considered providing students with a written record of her explanations her responsibility as a teacher. In addition, in his rationale for asking students to engage in a grammar-focused discussion

about modal verbs, Rudy stated a belief in the ineffectiveness of providing explanations to students (in general) compared to peer-learning.

As I noted above, a wide range of broader pedagogical beliefs were identified which did not feature across the three participants' rationales. Previous research highlights that individuals hold their beliefs in unique ways and the impact of beliefs on practice can also vary across individuals (Buehl & Beck, 2015). The data show that Katie was the only one who stated *beliefs about promoting accuracy* in relation to her engagement in impromptu grammar teaching (focusing on quantifiers) whilst doing a grammar-focus activity on present perfect structures. Other broader pedagogical beliefs (*beliefs about real-life discourse, beliefs about students' personalities* and *belief about students' development of agency*) only featured in Josey's rationales. Josey, for example, in her rationale for using concept and context questions for teaching articles stated that she believed that her current students were communicative and liked getting involved in activities. Likewise, Rudy stated beliefs that none of the other teachers did, such as *beliefs about activities, beliefs about students' grammar learning expectation/preferences, beliefs about the social context of teaching* and *beliefs about translation to L1*. When commenting on his use of rule explanations, for example, he stated that, although he did not believe that giving rule explanations promoted students' grammar learning, he provided them because he believed that students expected rule explanations from him. Finally, some broader pedagogical beliefs were held by two teachers, but not all teachers. Both Katie and Josey stated *beliefs about promoting students' self-esteem*, but not Rudy. However, Rudy and Josey stated *beliefs about student motivation* that did not feature in Katie's rationales.

### 9.2.3 The impact of other influential factors on the teachers' selection and use of GTTs

Previous research has identified a range of internal and external factors that can impact on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Table 37 shows a variety of influential factors (other than beliefs) that impacted on the relationship between the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and their instructional practices. In this section I will discuss these in turn with reference to the relevant literature.

*Table 37: Internal and external influences on the teachers' selection and use of GTTs*

	Katie	Josey	Rudy
--	-------	-------	------



	Internal	External	Internal	External	Internal	External
Influential factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The teacher's learning preferences</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• availability of objects</li> <li>• course book content</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• lack of KAG</li> <li>• lack of teaching experience</li> <li>• preferred communicating style</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• course book content</li> <li>• student attendance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PLLE: Rudy's experiences of learning this structure</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• course book content</li> <li>• language exams</li> <li>• social context</li> </ul>

### 9.2.3.1 Internal influential factors

Table 22 shows a variety of internal influential factors that impacted on the teachers' belief-practice relationships. Buehl and Beck (2015) discuss a wide range of internal influential factors (including broader, which beliefs I discussed above) to the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices. It has been highlighted in the literature on science and technology education, for example, that teachers' lack of content knowledge can impact on the relationship between their beliefs and practices (Mouza, 2009; Rushton, et al, 2011). The data in the present study provide evidence that Josey's selection and use of grammar teaching tools was also influenced by her *lack of KAG* and *lack of experience* in teaching the grammar point. When students asked her to explain what 'whom' meant, Josey said that she did not know the rules of using it. She also lacked experience in teaching this grammar point. Although she did not know the rules of using the structure, Josey considered enhancing her students' understanding of the said grammar point important. Therefore, she decided to give an example and use a synonym. This suggests that Josey's lack of knowledge about the grammar point and lack of experience in teaching impacted on her selection of grammar teaching tools, creating inconsistency between her beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and her practices. Teachers' experiences can also act as internal influences on the belief-practice relationship (Buehl & Beck, 2015). When teaching 'had better' to his students', Rudy's *PLLEs* seemed to impact on his selection and use of grammar teaching tools. Rudy believed that his students understood the meanings of 'must' and 'should', but they found this grammar point problematic. He then decided to ask his students to place 'had better' on a line between 'must' and 'should' on the board, because this technique had helped him understand this grammar point when he was learning the structure. Therefore, Rudy's previous language learning experiences seemed to reinforce his beliefs about the above grammar teaching tool.

Both Katie and Josey referred to other internal influential factor in their rationales for choosing grammar teaching tools: their *own learning/communicating preferences*.

Katie's rationale shows that her selection of a type of error correction (asking students to correct errors in sentences on the board) was influenced by her learning preferences. She explained that if she were a student, this would be what she would like her teachers to do. Similarly, Josey's use of gestures in the classroom was influenced by her preferred style of communicating. She explained that she was a visual person and, to her, using gestures to explain things was a natural way of communicating. It has been suggested that teachers' learning styles can impact on classroom interaction (Tsui, 2001). The examples above show that teachers' learning or communicating preferences can also impact on the selection and use of their instructional strategies in grammar teaching. They seem to reinforce positive beliefs about grammar teaching tools, and support the enactment of these beliefs in teachers' practices.

#### 9.2.3.2 External Influential factors

The data provide evidence that external influential factors can influence the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices. However, as previous research suggests, often (but not always) it is not the factors themselves but teachers' perceptions of them that impact on the belief-practice relationship (Bullock, 2010; Sanchez & Borg, 2014).

It has been suggested that some of the external factors that can impact on the belief-practice relationship are at *classroom-level* (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Josey stated a classroom-level influential factor on her selection and use of grammar teaching techniques: *student attendance*. She said that she decided to revise a grammar structure she taught in the previous lesson because many students had missed the class the day before. She chose grammar teaching tools that helped her get feedback on students' understanding of the grammar point (those who had attended the previous class), but also provided an opportunity for students who had missed the class to learn the grammar point. These findings are in line with the findings from previous studies which highlight the influential nature of student attitudes and behaviour on teachers' beliefs and practices (Bullock, 2010; Southerland et al., 2011).

*School-level factors* also influenced the teachers' selection and use of pedagogical techniques in their grammar teaching practices (Buehl & Beck, 2015). Previous research suggests that the availability of resources can impact on the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices (Bullock, 2010). Katie held positive beliefs about using realia and used them in her observed practices for teaching grammar. However, she highlighted that she was often unable to use realia in her grammar teaching practices because the objects she needed were not available. This shows that although on this

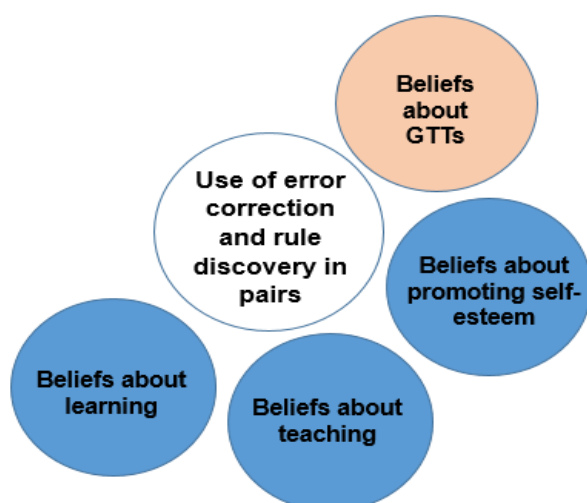
occasion realia was available, the unavailability of realia could have caused inconsistencies between Katie's beliefs about grammar teaching tools and her practices. The data show that *teaching materials* can also impact on the selection and use of teachers' pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching. For instance, both Josey and Rudy used comparisons between grammar structures in their observed practices, not only because they believed that this technique would help them make the grammar content accessible to their learners, but also because the course books they used compared these grammar structures. Therefore, the teaching materials seemed to reinforce the teachers' beliefs about making comparisons between grammar structures and support the enactment of such beliefs in their practices. In addition, Josey decided to engage in impromptu grammar teaching not only to enact her beliefs about grammar learning and teaching, but also because in the course book there was a clear example sentence containing the grammar structure. On another occasion, she decided to explain the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, not only because she wanted to help her students understand them, but also because her learners seemed to understand and enjoy the context (created by the course book), where the grammar point occurred. Therefore, in this case the teaching materials created an opportunity for Josey to enact her grammar teaching beliefs.

Previous research suggests that *national, state and district-level factors* can also impact on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Tan, 2011; Valdiviezo, 2009). The present study also provides evidence of the influence of such factors. Rudy's selection and use of grammar teaching tools seemed to be influenced by the *language exams* that his students had to prepare for. Amongst the reasons for making comparisons between the different structures used for hypothesising (e.g. beliefs about the grammar point), Rudy mentioned that students' knowledge of these structures was often tested in language exams. Therefore, Rudy's perception of the external influential factor seemed to reinforce his beliefs about the grammar teaching tool he used. The impact of the social context on teachers' classroom practices in English speaking countries has been acknowledged in the literature (Schellekens, 2007). In the present study Rudy decided to make a comparison between the grammar taught in class and the grammar of real-life discourse. Although he believed that if students learnt official English first they would be able to adjust their use of language to real-life situations, he also believed that the differences between real-life life discourse and official English confused students. Therefore, *the social context of teaching* (teaching in England, where students are exposed to English outside the classroom) impacted on his selection and use of

pedagogical techniques and acted as a hindrance to enactment of his beliefs about grammar teaching in his practices.

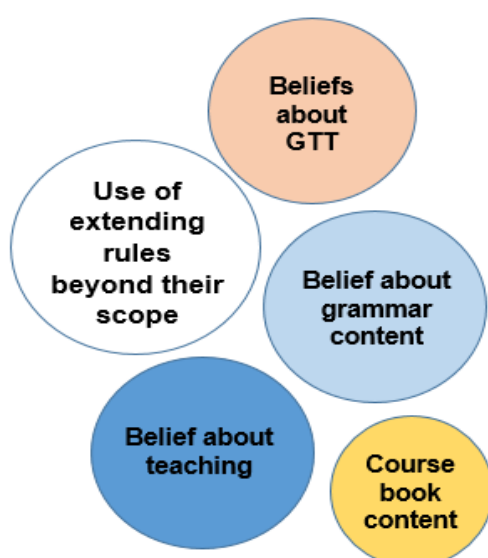
#### 9.2.4 The dynamic nature of the belief-practice relationship

At the beginning of Section 9.2 I introduced Figure 15 to illustrate the relationship between teachers' use of GTTs, their beliefs about GTTs and other internal and external influential factors across the three cases. Although Figure 15 is useful for giving the reader a sense of how frequently certain types of beliefs or influential factors featured in the teachers' rationales, I would like to argue that creating a model of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices that can be applied universally is not possible. As I highlighted in Chapter III (section 3.2.3.3), it has been suggested that there is a dynamic interplay between teachers' beliefs and practices, which means that the belief-practice relationship can change in every classroom situation (Cobb and Yacknel, 1996; Skott 2015). In addition, beliefs can have different functions during different classroom activities, such as *filters* (impact on how individuals process new information), *frames* (contextualise a problem or give directions to find a solution) and *guides* (impact on teachers' actions directly) (Fives & Buehl, 2017). The present study supports these findings and provides evidence that when teachers' use GTTs in their practices, there is a dynamic interplay between different types of beliefs and influential factors. To illustrate this, I will provide an example from each participant's practice. When teaching quantifiers, Katie seemed to believe that correcting errors and discovering rules in pairs were challenging and interactive, and made students think and communicate. She also stated broader pedagogical beliefs in her rationale for using this technique, such as beliefs about learning (learning is constructed through interaction), teaching (silence in class constitutes not teaching) and about promoting students' self-esteem (working in pairs promotes self-esteem). Figure 16 illustrates the relationship between Katie's beliefs and practices in this particular case.



*Figure 16: Katie's beliefs and use of error correction and rule discovery in pairs*

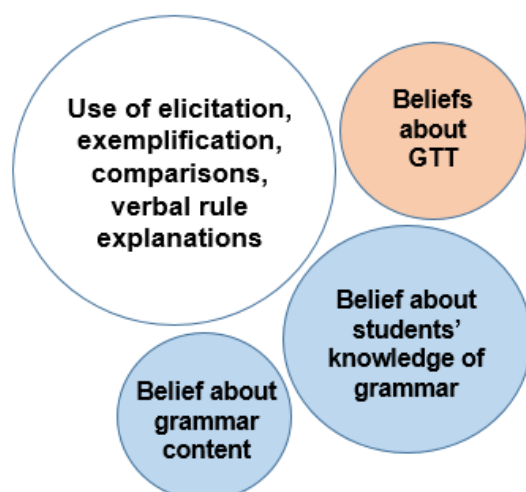
Josey's use of extending a rule beyond its scope is another example of this. She believed that this technique enhanced her students' understanding of the comparative form of irregular adjectives. At the same time she held beliefs about teaching (helping students understand this grammar point was her responsibility as a teacher) and the grammar point (she considered it difficult to teach); and noted that she found the context that the course book created helpful. Figure 17 illustrates the belief-practice relationship in this classroom situation.



*Figure 17: Josey beliefs and use of extending a rule (about grading regular adjectives) beyond its scope*

Finally, an example from Rudy's practices provides further insights. He often held beliefs about the grammar point together with beliefs about his students' knowledge of grammar, most often about his students' knowledge of grammar content. These two types of beliefs

seemed to work together to facilitate the development of contextually appropriate pedagogies in Rudy's practices (perceived as appropriate by Rudy) (see Kuchah, 2013 for a discussion of appropriate pedagogies). When explaining modal verbs, Rudy believed that they were not complicated; therefore, providing a written rule explanation to his learners was not necessary. He also believed that the students in his class were often confused about the forms of 'must' and 'have to' because of the similarity between their functions. Therefore, instead of providing written rule explanations, he elicited from his students, gave examples and made comparisons between different modal verbs. He also provided verbal rule explanations when it was necessary. Therefore, in this case, Rudy's selection and use of context-appropriate grammar teaching tools were *guided* by his beliefs about his students' knowledge of grammar (Fives & Buehl, 2017). Figure 18 illustrates the relationship between Rudy's beliefs and use of GTTs in this classroom situation.



*Figure 18: Rudy's beliefs and use of GTTs for teaching modal verbs*

### **9.3 RQ3: How do teachers' pedagogical practices inform their beliefs about pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching? What external and internal factors support or hinder the development of beliefs through practice?**

Research on language teachers' beliefs and practices has provided evidence that gaining teaching experience has an important role in belief change and development (e.g. Borg, 1998; Borg & Burns, 2008). As discussed in Chapter III (section 3.2.2.2), in the present study belief change does not only mean radical change in existing beliefs, but also subtle, developmental changes (Borg, 2011). Previous research identified a large variety of belief development processes (e.g. developing awareness, re-ordering existing beliefs) (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000). Researchers also suggest that beliefs

which are confirmed by classroom experiences seem to be more strongly held than beliefs which are only theoretically embraced (Basturkmen, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). The findings of the present study seem to provide evidence of the impact of engaging in practice on the development of teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools and on the development of their broader beliefs about different aspects of their profession.

### 9.3.1 The impact of engaging in practice on teachers' beliefs about GTTs

#### 9.3.1.1 Belief development through gaining teaching experience

Previous research on teachers' beliefs and practices shows that gaining teaching experience often shapes novice teachers' beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Ozgun-Koca & Sen, 2006). At this stage of their career their professional identities often go through radical transformation (Xu, 2012). The teachers in the present study often reported that they had been using certain grammar teaching techniques for a long time. When they recalled how or why they had started using certain pedagogical techniques, they often shared experiences from their first years of teaching.

It has been suggested that people acquire knowledge about their ability of performing an activity by engaging in it (Bandura, 1997). Previous studies report that gaining teaching experience can impact on the development of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (if success is experienced) (Lumpe et al., 2012; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). The data in the present study provide further evidence that teaching self-efficacy beliefs can increase by engaging in classroom practice. Moreover, an increase in self-efficacy beliefs can impact on teachers' use of grammar teaching strategies. Josey's rationale for using certain grammar teaching tools provided insights into how her use of grammar teaching techniques had changed as a result of gaining teaching experience. Regarding her use of elicitation, she explained that gaining experience had helped her overcome her initial anxiety of teaching. She shifted her focus from how she was interacting with the learners to how the learners learnt better. When she experienced this shift in her approach to teaching, she started eliciting to check her learners' understanding of the grammar content she taught. She thus believed that by eliciting she could check her students' understanding of the content. Gaining confidence allowed her to use grammar teaching tools more spontaneously, and adopt pedagogical techniques that she had not necessarily planned in advance. In addition, at the beginning of her career Josey often taught decontextualized grammar, which, to her, resulted in dull lessons. Gaining experience also made Josey realise that creating a context for grammar content and explaining rules afterwards made her lessons more interesting and had a positive impact

on student involvement. This shows that the development of Josey's self-efficacy beliefs had an impact on her selection and use of grammar teaching tools in the classroom.

Likewise, Katie reported that earlier in her career she realised that her communication activities were not constructive enough. Reflecting on her classroom experiences, she decided to change the way she did communication practice activities and started to put students' sentences on the board and underline grammar structures in them. She believed that this strategy added face validity to her teaching, provided positive feedback to her students, boosted students' confidence, reinforced their learning and showed students how grammar points could be used for talking about themselves. This example shows that developing awareness about how the activity she used impacted on her students' grammar learning made Katie use activities which involved grammar teaching tools (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000).

These examples show that engaging in teaching practice can have a great influence on the development of teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools. These results seem to support previous research findings, which suggest that developing awareness (e.g. about learners, activities, grammar teaching tools) and linking different concepts (e.g. establishing a link between teaching grammar in context and making lessons more interesting) are all parts of the process of belief development (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000).

#### 9.3.1.2. Belief development through students' response

##### *Student feedback*

The impact of receiving feedback from learners on teachers' belief development has been acknowledged in the literature (Borg & Burns, 2008). The present study provides further evidence of how student feedback can impact on the development of teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools. Both Katie and Josey reported receiving feedback on their grammar teaching techniques from their students. Katie's use of a diagram for explaining present perfect, for example, had been informed by her students' feedback on the usefulness of diagrams to understand grammar. Josey's beliefs about using timelines appeared to develop in a similar way. She first encountered timelines during her CELTA course and found them useful when learning grammar. Using timelines in her classroom practices seemed to confirm Josey's beliefs about them as her students reported they had found timelines useful to understand grammar. This provides further evidence that consolidation or confirmation of existing beliefs is part of the process of



belief development (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000), and receiving feedback from students has an important role in this.

*Observations of learners' reactions, ability, progress and achievement*

There is evidence in the literature that teachers' 'observations of learners' ability, progress and achievement' can impact on the development of their beliefs about integrated grammar and skills work (Borg & Burns, 2008, p. 478). The findings of the present study provide further evidence of the impact of such observations on teachers' beliefs. The data show that learners' response to a grammar teaching technique can inform the development of teachers' beliefs about it. Josey learnt during her CELTA training that eliciting from learners is important. When she tried eliciting in her practices, she experienced that her learners showed eagerness to communicate and got involved in activities. Therefore, she believed that eliciting promoted student involvement and self-esteem, and that it was a really good tool for checking students' understanding of grammar. This also provides further evidence that through engaging in practice teachers can confirm their existing beliefs (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000).

The findings also provide evidence of the impact of observing students' classroom behaviour on teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques. Katie, for instance, experienced that when she provided written rule explanations on the board, students often did not make notes and ended up having no records of what had been discussed about the grammar point. Therefore, she decided to use handouts which had typewritten rule explanations and examples on because these provided a written record for students. Katie believed that these were clearer and made teaching grammar quicker and easier.

Previous research shows that teachers' classroom decisions regarding their use of metalanguage can be influenced by their assessment of students' knowledge of grammatical terminology (Borg, 1999). The data in the present study show that the teachers observed and assessed their students' understanding and use of grammar structures, which impacted on the development of their beliefs about grammar teaching techniques. Katie, for instance, experienced that her learners were often confused about when to use certain modal verbs in conversations. Therefore, she developed a technique that could address this issue: when teaching modal verbs, she categorised them according to register and function. She believed that this technique gave students a sense of how modal verbs were used in real-life discourse. Similarly, Rudy experienced that his students often confused the forms of 'must' and 'have to', and they used 'must to' in the classroom. Therefore, even if he believed that learning modal verbs was easy,

he made a comparison in his observed practices between 'must' and 'have to'. He believed that this technique would help his students differentiate their forms.

Finally, the data also suggest that when the teachers observed that the grammar teaching tool they used enhanced their learners' understanding of grammar they developed positive beliefs about that particular grammar teaching tool. For example, when using gestures in her grammar teaching practices, Katie observed that her students understood her explanations. Therefore, Katie started to believe that gestures were a quick way of getting meaning across. Similarly, when teaching present perfect to her students, Josey experienced that her students were confused about the difference between present perfect and past simple. When she made comparisons between these tenses, her students seemed to understand the differences. Josey thus concluded that making comparisons helped students understand the differences between grammatical structures. Likewise, Rudy, who compared L1 and L2 grammar rules, experienced that grammar rules which had not been fully understood during his explanations became clear to students when he made comparisons. Therefore, he believed that comparing L1 and L2 grammar rules made grammar learning less challenging by allowing students to relate the new grammar rules to their L1 grammar knowledge. In addition, making such comparisons enhanced his students' understanding of grammar. The results of previous studies show that positive classroom experiences can increase teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Lumpe et al., 2012; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). These examples show that gaining positive classroom experiences whilst using a grammar teaching tool can also impact on teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques.

### 9.3.1.3 Mixed experiences

In some cases the teachers reported mixed experiences when using certain grammar teaching techniques in their practices. Katie shared that when she used drawings for teaching grammar some students understood the grammar point more quickly and reacted well to them, whereas some students did not understand her drawings. As discussed above, Katie believed in supporting students with different learning styles. Although not every student reacted to drawings well, the response of those who did seemed to reinforce her belief that this technique was effective for some students. This provides further evidence that the relationship between practice (their use of GTTs) and content-specific beliefs (the teachers' beliefs about GTTs) depends on how teachers' classroom experiences impact on the relationship their orientations (e.g. beliefs, knowledge, goals) they bring to the classroom and on their intentions in certain classroom situations (Schoenfeld, 2011). Therefore, despite her mixed experiences,

Katie held only positive beliefs about drawings. She considered them quick, clear, interesting and lively. She also believed that rule explanations were boring and tiring for students and they needed to be used with other grammar teaching techniques.

It has been suggested by previous studies that when experienced teachers and planned aspects of teaching are investigated, beliefs are more likely to be reflected in teachers' practices (Basturkmen, 2012). My study shows, however, that experienced teachers can also experience tensions between their beliefs and practices. Josey experienced a tension when she provided written rule explanations on the board for teaching the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. She explained that although her students seemed to like this technique and they were eager to get involved, she found it time consuming. To Josey, her explanations seemed complicated and unclear on the board. Therefore, during her observed practice she decided to use a handout with typewritten rule explanations on. Although the typewritten explanations were clear and succinct, Josey thought that they did not promote interaction in the classroom. Therefore, she remained uncertain whether she should put explanations on the board or give students a handout with the rules on instead. This suggests that Josey experienced a tension: she strongly believed that her role as a teacher was to help her students understand grammar, but she also believed in promoting student involvement in the classroom. After reflecting on her classroom experiences, she realised that none of the techniques she tried in the classroom helped her enact any of these beliefs. In addition, she found the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives confusing and difficult to explain. As in her current instructional context Josey was free to choose her instructional strategies, the tensions she experienced made her experiment with different ways of making grammar content accessible.

### 9.3.2 Summary

The findings of the present study provide further insights into how gaining teaching experience can impact on teachers' beliefs and the kind of classroom experiences which can impact on teachers' belief development. Figure 19 below summarises the type of classroom experiences that the teachers referred to when discussing the development of their beliefs about grammar teaching tools.

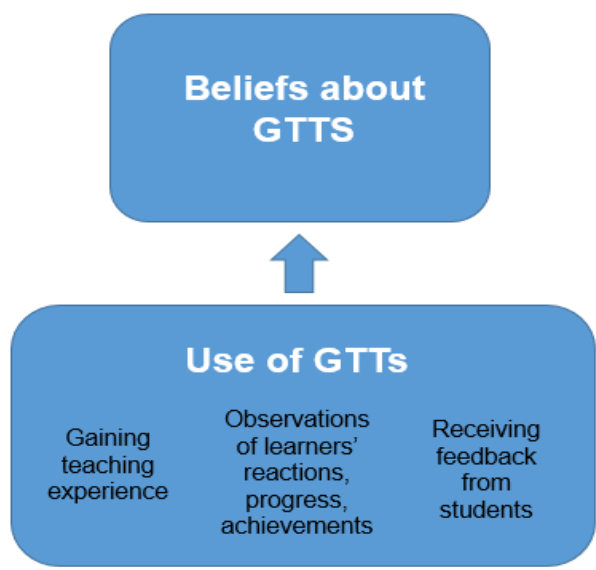


Figure 19: Practice impacts on the developments of beliefs about GTTs

9.4 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the findings of the present study in relation to the relevant literature and answer my research questions. Figure 20 summarises these findings. It shows that a wide range of internal and external influences can impact (often simultaneously) on teachers’ classroom decisions depending on the individual teacher and the particular classroom situation. It also shows the type of experiences the teachers gain when using GTTs in their practices, which, according to the findings, can influence the development of their beliefs about GTTs and broader pedagogical beliefs.

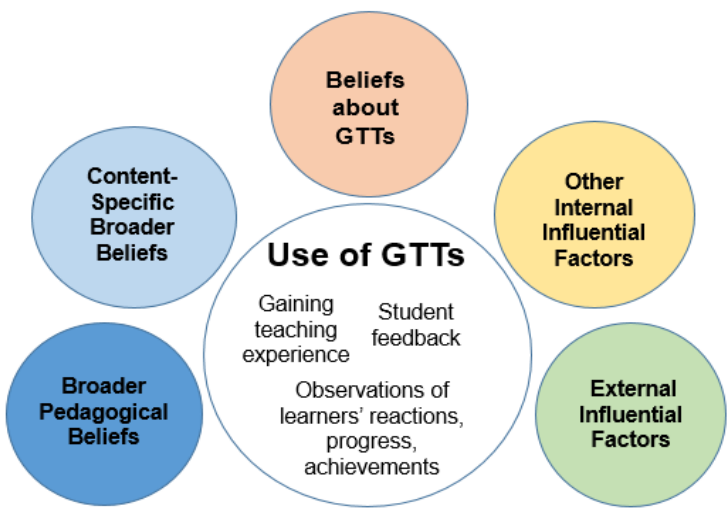


Figure 20: The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices about GTTs and internal and external influential factors

## Chapter X. Conclusion

### 10.1 Introduction

The aim of this project was to provide a better understanding of how experienced teachers select and use grammar teaching tools in their classroom practices in a UK ESOL context. In the following sections the main implications (section 10.2) and the limitations of my study (see section 10.3) will be discussed. Then, recommendations for future research will be discussed (see section 10.4). In the final section (10.5) concluding remarks will be made.

### 10.2 Implications

Although predicting all possible implications of this project can be difficult, in the following section I would like to discuss three main implications of this study: implications for teacher cognition research, to the participants and the field of UK ESOL and similar instructional contexts and to teacher education and the professional development of teachers.

#### 10.2.1 Teacher cognition research

I believe that the present study has implications for the field of teacher cognition research, especially in the context of grammar teaching.

The data show that in relation to their use of GTTs the teachers held not only beliefs about grammar teaching techniques, but also a wide range of broader beliefs which influenced their selection and use of these techniques in the observed practices. These findings seem to resonate with previous research findings and provide further evidence that teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching tools can be influenced by a wide range of broader pedagogical concerns (Sanchez & Borg, 2014). Although the data show that most of these broader beliefs were content-specific (related to grammar teaching), there was evidence for the influential nature of content-general beliefs as well in the data (Fives & Buehl, 2017). Although it has been pointed out that content-general beliefs (e.g. about learning or teaching) tend to act as a *frame* for understanding classroom situations rather than *guiding* teachers' classroom decisions, the data indicate that broader beliefs (e.g. beliefs about learning, beliefs about teaching) were also stated in teachers' rationales for using GTTs (ibid). This suggests that when teachers' beliefs about a content area are studied, not only content-specific beliefs, but also content-general beliefs need to be explored.

The findings provide further evidence that teachers hold their beliefs in clusters (Green, 1971, Pajares, 1992). Within these clusters beliefs can function as a *frame* for understanding or assessing a classroom situation and others seem to *guide* teachers' decision making (Fives & Buehl, 2017). The findings show that the teachers held their beliefs in unique ways, and the function of a type of belief could be different in different teachers' belief systems or in a different classroom situation (Buehl & Beck, 2015). The data also show interaction between the teachers' content-specific and content-general beliefs. The impact of either types of beliefs on the selection and use of the teachers' pedagogical techniques in grammar teaching also seemed to vary teacher by teacher, depending on the position of a belief in the teacher' belief system. This suggests that when studying teachers' beliefs not only the type of beliefs teachers hold about different aspects of their profession need to be explored, but also the relationship between different types of beliefs within teachers' belief systems to capture the complexity of the relationship between beliefs and practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Li 2013).

The findings of the present study also seem to provide some insights into how teachers' construct contextually appropriate pedagogies (Kuchah, 2013). As discussed in Chapter IX (Section 9.2.4), Rudy's *beliefs about modal verbs* and *about his students' knowledge of modal verbs* worked together to facilitate the development of pedagogies that Rudy perceived as appropriate in his classroom context. This suggests, that by studying how different beliefs work together, researchers can gain insights into how teachers' develop contextually appropriate pedagogies.

It has been suggested that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices can be influenced by a wide range of internal influential factors (e.g. other beliefs, experience) and external ones (e.g. contextual factors) (Buehl & Beck, 2015). The data show that lacking *knowledge* or *experience* can cause inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices (see Section 9.2.3.1). In addition, *previous learning experiences* and *teachers' preferred learning and communication styles* can reinforce beliefs and support their enactment in practice (see Section 9.2.3.1) (Tsui, 2001). Confirming previous research findings, the present study provides further evidence, that in the case of external influential factors, it is often not the factors themselves, but the teachers' perceptions of these factors what could hinder or support the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their practices (Bullock, 2010; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). The data indicate that the teachers' perceptions of the *course book content* and the *content of language of exams* could reinforce beliefs about grammar teaching tools and support the enactment of beliefs in teachers' practices. However, the teachers' perceptions of inconsistent

*student attendance* and the *social context of teaching* could cause inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices. These findings show that, in order to understand how teachers select and use grammar teaching tools in different contexts, both internal and external influential factors on the belief-practice relationship need to be explored.

Finally, the data confirm previous research findings which suggest that engaging in practice can impact on teachers' belief development (Borg, 1998; Borg & Burns, 2008). The findings show that the teachers developed their beliefs about grammar teaching tools through *gaining teaching experience (at an early stage of their career)*, *receiving feedback from students* and *observing learners' reactions, abilities, progress and achievements* (Borg & Burns, 2008). Although these experiences did not always result in radical changes in existing beliefs, they often initiated subtle, developmental changes (Borg, 2011), such as *developing awareness*, *linking concepts* and *confirming existing beliefs* (Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000). These findings suggest that in order to understand how teachers develop their beliefs, studying their teaching practices and identifying aspects of practice that can initiate belief development are crucial.

### 10.2.2 The participants and the UK ESOL context

The present study seemed to carry implications for the research participants. As discussed in Chapter IV, the teachers had not participated in a research project or been audio-recorded for research purposes before the present study was conducted. The following quotations are the teachers' reflections on participating in this study.

(...) It [taking part in the project] has made me kind of question the way I do things, and (...) try and sort of change the way I do some things, not all things but maybe do things in a better way (...). (Katie, REI)

(...) it's been a bit of an education for me as well, perhaps I need to self-check more, be more aware of myself as to what am I actually doing; what are the students really gonna get? Is this the best thing to do? (Josey, REI)

(...) by you asking questions why I did it, what was the reason for that, (...) I understand why I do things. (Rudy, REI)

The teachers' reflections show that participating in the project helped them develop self-awareness. Articulating their beliefs seemed to help them look at their practices more critically and question their classroom decisions.

Another insight that emerged from these interviews was related to the teachers' reflections on listening to their audio-recorded lessons. The following quotations are Katie's and Josey's reflections on listening to the audio-recordings of their lessons.

(...) it was quite useful, 'cause I'm aware now my pace, the way I sound, the way I speak, you know I've got more reflection, more sort of rhythm, tone, that kind of thing (Katie, REI).

'(...) I really do talk very slowly, don't I? And I do go on sometimes I just repeat myself over and over again.' (Josey, REI)

The comments above provide evidence that through listening to the audio-recordings Katie and Josey developed awareness of how they interact in the classroom. This suggests that listening to audio-recordings of classroom interactions can have a significant impact on the teachers' professional development, even in the case of experienced teachers.

Recently concerns have been raised about the continuing deprofessionalisation of ESOL teaching (Paget and Stevenson, 2014). Although NATECLA (2016) points out that all ESOL teachers should have access to CPD opportunities, teachers are often hired on zero hour contracts with limited or no access to such opportunities (Paget and Stevenson, 2014). Due to the continuing funding cuts to ESOL provision, ESOL providers often struggle to provide CPD opportunities to teachers (NATECLA, 2016). The examples above provide evidence that encouraging teachers to reflect on their classroom practices can have a significant impact on their development. I believe that institutions which struggle to fund teacher training courses can use reflective techniques to provide CPD opportunities to their teachers on a low cost.

### 10.2.3 Teacher education and professional development of teachers

Although the present study was not conducted in the context of teacher education or development courses, implications for teacher education and teachers' professional development still emerged.

The findings provide plenty of examples of grammar teaching tools, and detailed descriptions of how the teachers used these techniques in their grammar teaching practices. I believe that such findings can be used to enhance teachers' knowledge about grammar teaching tools. These findings are especially relevant to teachers who work in a UK ESOL or similar instructional contexts. In addition, considering that many of the techniques required no use of technology or teaching materials, they can be used by teachers who wish to adopt an *unplugged* approach (avoiding the use of teaching materials and technology in the classroom and teaching language as it emerges from dialogues between teachers and students) to teaching (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009).



Although the teachers often remembered learning about grammar teaching techniques during their teacher training courses, the findings of the present study show that their beliefs about such techniques developed through engaging in classroom practice. This suggests that teacher training programs which provide an opportunity for teachers to test theories in practice have a better chance of initiating belief change or development.

### 10.3 Limitations

Although care was taken to assure the quality of the study, the following limitations need to be taken into consideration:

1. In this study teachers' beliefs were elicited through interviews, which means cognitions were captured through teachers' verbal commentaries. As essentially all data are only representations of cognitions (Polkinghorne, 1983), their connection to thinking can be questioned (Burns et al, 2015).
2. This study was conducted in one particular institution (private language school) in a UK ESOL context using a small sample size (three teachers). Although the findings of the present study cannot be generalised, care was taken to provide a *thick description* (Geertz, 1994) of the data to make the *transferability* (Given & Saumure, 2008) of the research findings possible to other contexts. Hence, researchers and readers might be able to identify similarities with their own contexts and relate the findings and implications of the present study to them.
3. Due to the teachers' and the researcher's limited availability only six classroom observations (150-180 minutes each) were conducted with each participant. Thus, as a limited amount of data was generated, relationships between the teachers' beliefs and practices might not have been fully captured. Data from the background interviews show that some of the stated beliefs about grammar teaching tools were not enacted in the teachers' practices. Although, these beliefs featured at the beginning of the case descriptions, they were not explored in relation to practice.
4. The data collected about the development of the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools through engaging in practice relied on the teachers' retrospective account of their past teaching experiences, rather than on observed classroom experiences. As some of these experiences were gained a long time ago, the teachers' memories of them might not have been fully accurate.

5. Although it was made clear to the teachers that my aim was to observe their normal classroom practices, they might have modified their classroom behaviour due to my presence in the classroom ('Hawthorne Effect', Cohen et al., 2011). As explained in Chapter IV, care was taken to explain the teachers (information sheet, one-to-one conversations) that I intended to observe them in their natural settings. Also, decisions about when observations would happen were often made on the spot, leaving no time for the teachers to change their lesson plans. This might have reduced the possibility of preparing 'model' lessons.
6. Finally, I would like to point out that the insights emerging from the data are all based on my interpretations of the teachers' actions and comments. Therefore, the impact of *researcher subjectivity* (Richardson & St. Pierre, 2005) has to be considered when the findings are interpreted. In order to reflect on the researchers' role in the project and identify personal bias I wrote a research diary. In the diary I provided a detailed account of my experiences of engaging with the participants and analysing the research data.

#### 10.4 Recommendations for future research

From the discussion of the findings, implications and limitations of the study the following recommendations for future research emerge:

1. In order to address the conceptual limitations of the study and represent the relationships between cognitions and practice in a more complex manner researchers should seek new, innovative data collection methods that can capture the 'lived complexity of the work of language teaching' (Burns et al, 2015, p. 597).
2. As I highlighted in Chapter II, our knowledge about what type of grammar teaching tools teachers use in their classroom practices and how they select and use these pedagogical techniques is very limited. I am aware of only two studies (Johnston and Goettsch, 2000; Sanchez & Borg, 2014) which explored teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching techniques from a cognitive perspective. More studies need to be conducted in different instructional contexts in order to gain a better understanding of what type of grammar teaching tools teachers use in their practices and how they select and use such techniques.
3. The present study and the two studies mentioned above (Johnston and Goettsch, 2000; Sanchez & Borg, 2014) all focused on experienced teachers' selection and

use of grammar teaching tools, and none of them was longitudinal. It has been suggested that in order to gain a better understanding of how teachers develop their beliefs overtime longitudinal studies need to be conducted (Levin, 2015). Therefore, in order to gain a better understanding of how teachers develop their beliefs about grammar teaching tools longitudinal studies need to be conducted with pre-service or novice teacher participants. Such studies might be able to generate observational data about the development of teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching tools in real time and would not need to rely on the retrospective account of experienced teachers.

4. As highlighted in Section 9.2.4 the data provided evidence that by studying the relationship between different types of beliefs researchers can gain insights into how teachers construct pedagogies that they perceive as appropriate in their instructional contexts. Therefore, future researchers who would like to understand how teachers' construct contextually appropriate pedagogies should study how different types of beliefs interact with one another within teachers' belief systems and how these beliefs influence teachers' classroom practices.
5. Finally, recent calls in the literature invite teacher cognition researchers to reclaim the importance of the field by studying teachers' cognitions and teaching in relation to learners' cognitions and learning (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Therefore, I suggest that in order to provide insights into how teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching tools relate to students' grammar learning both teachers' and students' cognitions and practices need to be studied.

### **10.5 Concluding Remarks**

I believe that conducting the present doctoral study was a major contribution to my professional development. I gained experience in designing a study, recruiting participants, collecting and analysing data and presenting research findings. I also enhanced my understanding of teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching techniques and the relationship between teachers' beliefs about such techniques and their grammar teaching practices. The knowledge I gained also helps me to teach grammar more effectively in my classroom practices and taught me the importance of reflecting on my classroom practices.

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## **Appendices**

### **Appendix 1: Semi-structured background interview schedule**

#### **Semi-structured background interview questions (based on Borg (2015), length: approx. 60 mins)**

##### **Section 1 – The teachers' educational background**

1. What do you recall about your own English language learning at school?  
Did you learn any English grammar?
  - If yes, what kind of grammar teaching techniques did your teacher/s use to teach grammar? Can you give me a few examples?
  - How effective were these techniques?
2. Did you study any foreign languages? If yes, what do you recall about these lessons?
  - Did any grammar teaching take place?
  - If yes, what kind of grammar teaching techniques did your teacher/s use? Can you give me a few examples?
  - How effective were these techniques?
3. Do you feel that your educational experiences have had any influence on your teaching?

##### **Section 2-Professional development and experiences**

1. Tell me about your formal teacher training.
  - What kind of teaching qualifications did you obtain?
  - What do you recall about your teacher training?
    - What did you learn about grammar teaching?
    - What kind of grammar teaching techniques were you introduced to during your teacher training?
    - What did you learn about them? Please describe them.
    - What did you think about these techniques?
    - Did your teacher training include any teaching practice?  
If yes, what do you recall about your use of grammar teaching techniques at that time?  
Do you feel that what you have learnt about grammar teaching techniques during your training impacted on how you taught grammar that time?
2. Tell me about your English language teaching experiences.
  - How long have you been teaching English?
  - In what context(s) have you taught English? (e.g. country, institution, type of students etc.)
  - How long have you been teaching adult, immigrant students in the UK?
  - What are the advantages and challenges of working with these students?
  - How long have you been working for this language school?
  - How do you feel about working here?
  - Do you feel that teaching at this particular school has any influence on the way you teach?
    - Does the school promote any particular style of teaching? (e.g. emphasis on grammar/communication etc)

- Is there a set course syllabus that you need to follow? If yes, how do you feel about it? If not, how do you select what you teach during your course?
- What kind of teaching materials do you use?
- Do you feel that the students have any particular expectations that influence your teaching?
- Are there any examinations that you need to prepare your students for? If yes, how do these affect your teaching?
- Does the school offer any professional development opportunities (e.g. in-service teacher training, conference funds etc)?

### **Section 3 – General approach to grammar**

1. Please complete this sentence with your own words:  
Grammar means ....
2. What do you think about grammar learning?  
What areas of grammar do you feel confident about? Why?  
What areas of grammar do you find challenging? Why?

### **Section 4 – General approach to grammar teaching**

1. Please complete this sentence with your own words:  
Grammar teaching in English language teaching means ...
2. Tell me about your grammar teaching experiences.  
How do you approach grammar teaching in your lessons?  
How often and when do you teach grammar?  
What kind of grammar teaching techniques do you use to teach grammar?  
Why do you use these?  
Have you found any difference between teaching grammar at different levels?  
If yes, what kind of differences have you found?  
Do you use different grammar teaching techniques at different levels?  
Is yes, why?
3. Tell me about a grammar activity that you have recently done in class and you felt was successful.  
Why was it successful?
4. Tell me about a grammar activity that you have recently done and you felt was not successful. Why was not it successful?

## Appendix 2: Sample scenario-based interview schedule

### Scenario-based interview questions (pre-intermediate, Josey)

Below there are classroom situations that involve grammar teaching. You are teaching English to a group of **pre-intermediate** students (**adult students, mixed-nationality group**). Please explain **what** you would do in the given situations and **why**. In addition, explain **how** you would teach the given grammar point and **why** you would choose that grammar teaching technique.

1. The students are doing a speaking activity. During the activity you notice that many of your students use incorrect word order, such as: 'Sweets he doesn't like.', 'To the gym on Mondays she goes.', 'She at a hospital works'.
2. The students are doing a reading activity where 'are' is used both as a main verb (e.g., They are pretty) and as an auxiliary verb (e.g., They are going to the shop.) The students seem to be confused and ask you what 'are' means in these sentences.
3. The students are doing a writing activity. Their task is to write a timetable for the next week. As soon as they finish the activity, they start talking about their timetable with the person next to them. They get confused, because some wrote sentences like: 'I am meeting with my best friend, 'I am working on Monday', whereas others wrote sentences like 'I am going to meet my parents...', 'I am going to go to a concert'. They ask you which sentences are correct.
4. The students are about to do a speaking activity. Their task will be to compare two pictures of the same house before and after a reconstruction. They have never used comparative forms before (e.g. The roof of the new house is bigger.).
5. You are correcting your students' writing in class (They had to write about Christmas and New Year's Eve in their countries). You notice that the majority of them made a lot of mistakes with articles. They write sentences like 'We always eat the turkey.' 'We always give a presents...' 'The Christmas is always good.'
6. The students are doing a speaking activity in small groups. Their task is to find out what their groupmates do in their free time. You notice that when they ask questions they do not seem to use auxiliary verbs or use them incorrectly. (e.g. 'You like baking?', 'What you do in your free time?', 'When you do play tennis?')



**Appendix 3: Sample lesson observation summary table (pictures of materials not included)**

Class/Episode/part	Activity/length	Teacher action(s)	Grammar content	People involved
1/1	Class warm-up, explaining the topic of the lesson/15mins	Engaged in informal chatting with students' about their personal lives, explains the topic of the lesson.	Modal verbs	T+Sts
1/2	Discussion about modal verbs/15mins			
1/2a	Students discuss what they know about modal verbs/5mins	Provides explanations, corrects errors, fuels discussion	Modal verbs	Sts (in pairs/small groups)
1/2b	Class discussion about modal verbs/10 mins	Elicits function, form and meaning, provides and elicits examples (in context), makes comparisons	Modal verbs	T-Sts
1/3	Exercise in the course book about the function of modal verbs/12 mins*			
1/3/a	Checking vocabulary/5mins	Concept questions, incidental grammar explanation	V+ing	T+Sts
1/3/b	Sts do the exercise/2mins	Listens but does not participate	Function and meaning of modal verbs	Sts (on their own)
1/3/c	Sts check their answers/2mins	Monitors, provides explanations	Function and meaning of modal verbs	Sts (in pairs/small groups)

1/3/d	Class checks the exercise/3mins	Checks students' answers, provides explanations	Function and meaning of modal verbs	T-Sts
1/4	Reading and listening exercise: what expressions can replace modal verbs/21 mins*			
1/4/a	Class discussion: sts predict content of dialogues/2mins	Facilitates conversation, asks questions	Modal verbs	T-Sts
1/4/b	Sts read dialogue to search for modal verbs/3mins	Answers to students' questions	Modal verbs	T-Sts
1/4/c	Sts listen to dialogues to find the expressions that were used instead of the modal verbs/5mins	-	Modal verbs	Sts (on their own)
1/4/d	Sts compare their answers/3mins	Answers to questions	Modal verbs	T-Sts
1/4/e	Class discusses the answers/9mins	Provides answers, explanations about function, elicits meaning	Modal verbs	T-Sts
1/5	Exercise in the course book: Match expressions with modal verbs/19 mins*			
1/5/a	Sts match expressions with modal verbs (7mins)	Answers to questions	Modal verbs	T-Sts (in pairs)
1/5/b	Class checks the exercise (12 mins)	Initiates discussion about the grammar point, provides explanations (incidental grammar + modal verbs),	Modal verbs, Managed + to Inf.	T+Sts

		provides answers, examples		
1/6	Exercise: Students need to put sentences into past & future tenses/11 mins*			
1/6/a	Sts do the exercise/4mins	Answers to questions, gives hints	Modal verbs, past simple, past perfect, participle form of verbs	T-Sts
1/6/b	Sts discuss answers in pairs/2 mins	Listens	Modal verbs, past simple, past perfect, participle form of verbs	Sts (in pairs)
1/6/c	Class checks the exercise/5 mins	Provides answers, explanations, corrects errors	Modal verbs vs used to	T-Sts
1/7	'Break': Informal discussion with other teachers and sts from other groups/20 mins	Fuels discussion, uses modal verbs when talks to other students and teachers, discusses last week's homework with sts	Modal verbs	Ts (Rudy + other teachers) Sts (from all classes of the school)+me (researcher)
1/8	Class warm-up/15mins	Engaged in informal chatting with students' about their personal lives, provides practice	Modal verbs	T+Sts
1/9	Exercise: sts need to choose which modal verbs would fit into sentences/55 mins*			

1/9/a	Discussion about how to do the exercise/5 mins	Provides explanation, examples	Modal verbs	T-Sts
1/9/b	Sts do the exercise/15 mins	-	Modal verbs	Sts (on their own)
1/9/c	Sts discuss answers/10 mins	-	Modal verbs	Sts (in pairs)
1/9/d	Class discussion/25 mins	Provides answers, explanations, examples (with context), concept/context questions	Modal verbs	T-Sts

## Appendix 4: Sample stimulated-recall interview schedule

### Stimulated-recall interview plan

I have selected only seven scenes from the lesson, because I will have a very limited amount of time for the stimulated-recall interviews (30 mins). The rationale for choosing these scenes are the following: 1) Rudy provides grammar explanations or uses a grammar teaching technique that makes grammar content accessible for his learners. 2) If he used the same technique in two or more different scenes I only selected one of those scenes considering time constraints 3) I have selected scenes that can help me answer to my research questions (e.g. did not select scenes where he taught vocabulary).

I am going to ask the teacher to comment on the following scenes (questions will be used to initiate discussion):

**Scene 1 (warm up discussion):** 1/a/0.0: Rudy starts the lesson by saying: Today we are going to talk about modal verbs and we will do exercises.

Questions:

- Why did you choose to discuss modal verbs?
- Why did you tell them in advance what the grammar point was?

**Scene 1:** 1/a/3.50: Rudy asks the students to have a chat with the person next to them and summarize what they know about modal verbs.

Questions:

- Why did you ask them to summarize what they know about modal verbs?
- Why did not you start the lesson with a grammar explanation instead?
- Is this how you have always been doing this?
- If not, where did you learn this technique?

**Scene 3:** 1/a/9.15-17.50: Class discussion about modal verbs. Rudy **elicits** what students know about modal verbs. Then provides **rule explanations** (e.g. after modal verbs we use a bare infinitive, there is no 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular –s on modal verbs, no auxiliary verbs are used with modal verbs etc), **compares** different modal verbs (e.g. most ~~to~~ have to, explains the different functions of modal verbs by **providing examples in context** (e.g. 'Imagine that you see an amazing car on the street. A handsome guy, who is wearing an expensive suit gets out of the car. Apart from asking yourself: Is he married? You will think, hmm, he must be rich.'). He does not write on the board at all.

Questions:

- Why did you ask the students to tell you what they know?
- Why did you explain the students how to form sentences which contain modal verbs?
- You could have used to board during this process, why did you choose not to?
- You compared different modal verbs, why?
- You provided example sentences (e.g. I must study for this test), why?
- You often create a context for your example sentences, why?
- You used a lot of metalanguage 'auxiliary verbs' 'past simple' 'perfect infinitive', why?
- Is this how you have always been teaching grammar? If not how did you learn these techniques?

**Scene 4:** 1/a/20.04: Rudy is explaining the meaning of 'willingness', when one student says the following: 'He is wanting to'. Rudy provides an **explanation** why 'willing to' is correct, but 'wanting to' is not. He also provides personal examples: 'I am loving your T-shirt' and emphasizes that **grammar and practice** (real life language use) are different.

Question:

- Why did you provide a grammar explanation here? (The focus of the lesson was modal verbs.)
- You mentioned the difference between 'real life grammar' and grammar rules. Why?

**Scene 5:** 1/a/33.50: Rudy asks the students to read the dialogues and find the modal verbs in them before they start the listening exercise.

Questions:

- Why did you ask your students to find the modal verbs in the text before the exercise?
- Is this how you have always been teaching grammar from texts? If not how did you learn this technique?

**Scene 6:** 1/a/46.20: Rudy's students did not seem to understand the meaning and function of *had better*. He asked them to compare *had better* with *should* and *must*. The students were asked to imagine that *should* and *must* form a line and they were asked to place *had better* on the line. (e.g. 'Where is *had better* on the line? Before or after *should*? Which one is stronger?')

Questions:

- Why did you make a comparison between *had better*, *should* and *must*?
- Why did you ask the students to imagine them as a line from weak to strong?
- Is this how you have always been teaching this grammar point? If not how did you learn it?

**Scene 7:** 1/b/43.10 Rudy gives an example: 'You could go to England to learn English.' Then he asks questions. 'What does this mean? Is it ability? Is this present, future or past?'

Questions:

- Why did you ask these questions? (You could have explained the form and function without asking anything.)

Is this how you have always been teaching grammar? If not, how did you learn this technique?

## Appendix 5: Sample Interview transcript (Josey, SRI3 pp. 1-2)

(...)

[Listening to recording]

J: I'm getting sick of it.

A: Okay, let's stop it for a second. Do you remember more or less what was going on there?

J: I think yes, I remember.

A: Yeah? Can you explain me with your own words, what you were doing, why were you doing it?

J: Well Student A, it must be...yes it was Thursday. So, Student A doesn't attend class on a Tuesday. She is with Katie on a Tuesday. And I do like my students to sort of know where we're at, if you like, and so I like to, just to brief them on what we were doing; so that they... I don't want them to feel lost. I don't want just to launch straight into the lesson and they are not sure what I'm talking about. If, I mean if they have missed out because they haven't they weren't there before... So it's my way really of just trying to update her with what we did...And also to, revise what we did with the class as well, so by doing that Student A is being updated, with what we did and the class revising what we did. So that's my way of doing that. And also reinforcing it with the class who needed it.

A: (...) Alright, so I was wondering, that first of all you had a few examples on there; can you see them?

J: Yes.

A: That, *I've been driving for 30 years; I've been cooking since I was a child;*

J: Yeah,

A: And you elicited all of these examples from the students.

J: Yeah.

A: And you also drew a timeline. I think you can see that;

J: Yeah,

A: So I was quite curious about that one. I was wondering, why did you decide to place the examples on a timeline?

J: I think they are quite pictorial, therefore quite useful way of being able to illustrate time from the past to the present, and I illustrate continuous time with a sort of dotted line, I have also been taught that these are useful. Couple of my students in the past also have said 'We liked your timeline', they didn't call it timeline, 'We liked your picture', 'cause sometimes with the driving one a draw a little car as well...And, and so students have in the past actually said to me 'We have found that quite useful or very useful, it helped us understand what you were trying to teach or what we were trying to learn.' So that's why I usually draw one because I also feel that; I also feel that's a pictorial way of trying to explain the grammar point that I'm trying to get across and trying to show them, when it started in the past, the continuous time up until the present, so yeah. (...)

## Appendix 6: Sample coded interview transcript

Josey – SRI3		
Interview transcript	Code	Theme
(...)		
[Listening to recording]	Reaction to the recording	Research experience
J: I'm getting sick of it.		
A: Okay, let's stop it for a second. Do you remember more or less what was going on there?		
J: I think yes, I remember.		
A: Yeah? Can you explain me with your own words, what you were doing, why were you doing it?		
J: Well Student A, it must be...yes it was Thursday. So, Student A doesn't attend class on a Tuesday. She is with Katie on a Tuesday. And I do like my students to sort of know where we're at, if you like, and so I like to, just to brief them on what we were doing; so that they... I don't want them to feel lost. I don't want just to launch straight into the lesson and they are not sure what I'm talking about. If, I mean if they have missed out because they haven't they weren't there before... So it's my way really of just trying to update her with what we did...And also to, revise what we did with the class as well, so by doing that Student A is being updated, with what we did and the class revising what we did. So that's my way of doing that. And also reinforcing it with the class who needed it.	<p>Student A did not attend the previous class</p> <p>Josey likes to brief her students, let them know where the class is at</p> <p>She does not want them to feel lost</p> <p>She does not want to launch straight into the lesson and leaving students unsure of what she is talking about.</p> <p>Her way of updating the student</p> <p>Student A is being updated, the class is revising</p> <p>Reinforcing it with the class</p>	<p>Classroom context factor</p> <p>Beliefs about teaching</p>
A: Alright, I was just wondering, shall we have a look at the		



<p>board? What you actually had on the board? Hopefully that will remind you of what was going on.</p> <p>J: Yeah.</p> <p>A: Right; I don't know how legible it is. Can you read it?</p> <p>J: Yes.</p> <p>A: Alright, so I was wondering, that first of all you had a few examples on there; can you see them?</p> <p>J: Yes.</p> <p>A: That, <i>I've been driving for 30 years; I've been cooking since I was a child;</i></p> <p>J: Yeah,</p> <p>A: And you elicited all of these examples from the students.</p> <p>J: Yeah.</p> <p>A: And you also drew a timeline. I think you can see that;</p> <p>J: Yeah,</p> <p>A: So I was quite curious about that one. I was wondering, why did you decide to place the examples on a timeline?</p> <p>J: I think they are quite pictorial, therefore quite useful way of being able to illustrate time from the past to the present, and I illustrate continuous time with a sort of dotted line, I have also been taught that these are useful. Couple of my students in the past also have said 'We liked your timeline', they didn't call it timeline, 'We liked your picture', 'cause sometimes with the driving one a draw a little car as well...And, and so</p>	<p>Examples on the board</p> <p>Eliciting</p> <p>Timeline on the board</p> <p>Pictorial, useful way of illustrating time from the past to the present</p> <p>Continuous time – dotted line</p> <p>Josey was taught that this is useful</p> <p>Feedback from students on her use of timelines: they liked it, found it useful, helped them understand the grammar point</p>	<p>Grammar teaching technique (GTT)</p> <p>GTT</p> <p>GTT</p> <p>Beliefs about GTT (timelines)</p> <p>GTT</p> <p>Impact of PLLE?</p> <p>Practice impacts on beliefs about GTT</p>
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<p>students have in the past actually said to me 'We have found that quite useful or very useful, it helped us understand what you were trying to teach or what we were trying to learn.' So that's why I usually draw one because I also feel that; I also feel that's a pictorial way of trying to explain the grammar point that I'm trying to get across and trying to show them, when it started in the past, the continuous time up until the present, so yeah. (...)</p>		
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## Appendix 7: Sample within-case analysis table

Beliefs inform practice				
Case	SRI number	Beliefs informing the use of GTT	Evidence	Influential factors
Josey	1	<p><u>Belief about GTTs:</u> written rule explanations and examples on the board to revise grammar they learnt before will remind students, reinforce their grammar knowledge and provide them practice, focuses students on the grammar activity, visual: students can copy it into their notebook</p> <p><u>Belief about promoting sts' learning:</u> she needs to think of students who attended the class and would like to move forward</p>	<p>J: I wrote on the board the three forms of ... three ways that we talk about the future, the three grammar forms that we use to talk about the future and I wanted to double check that they understand why we have three different ways of referring to the future and so I wanted them to explain to me why we have three different ways, what we use them for. So Student D there was explaining to me or... the first form that happened to be <i>be + going to</i> + the infinitive, so she was explaining to me and reinforcing to me actually the fact that she understood what we use that for, for a future plan maybe not a definite plan a definite arrangement but it's a for the future and by me writing that on the board as well all the other students were also able to reinforce that, remind themselves of that, practice that. So yeah. So it's a revision a bit of revision, bit of bringing everyone back to what we are doing and focusing them on what we are doing at the moment and for people who weren't there at the previous lesson, it's a visual way of them being able to copy</p>	Students often miss the class

			<p>down into their books the grammar that we learnt so far and because we're talking about it with explanations and examples then hopefully that helps them understand as well.</p> <p>A: So is it partly because you know you know that students are moving around quite a lot and it's good to...</p> <p>J: Yes, for example there is a student who can't come tomorrow to the lesson and this always happens. So some students... so there is students who wasn't here today but who came on Tuesday. There is always a certain amount I don't spend too long, you can't spend a long time recapping and going back over what we have learnt so quite often I'll just do it as a quick warmer upper and quick revision for students who weren't there on the previous lesson. But you can't always do that because you have to think of the students who are there, who want to move forward, who do understand it. So there is bit of a fine like so you... but I think a little always helps, the main parts most important bits (SRI1, pp 1-2).</p>	
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## Appendix 8: Sample case summary table

Class/ Event	Activity	Grammar content	Grammar teaching techniques	Beliefs about GTTs	Other beliefs	Influential factors
1/1	Grammar revision  (planned)	Past simple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Eliciting rules and examples</li> <li>exemplification (conversation on the board, personal)</li> <li>verbal and written rules explanations</li> <li>Formulas (ASI, QWASI)</li> <li>comparisons (between questions, negatives and answers)</li> <li>getting students to correct grammar errors</li> </ul>	<p><u>Beliefs about GTTs (example as a gap fill activity, eliciting):</u> promoted reflection, added diversity and increased students' motivation.</p> <p><u>Belief about GTT (error correction):</u> revising and reinforcing knowledge, and assessing her students' current understanding of the grammar point</p> <p><u>Belief about GTT (comparisons):</u> Shows the differences between accuracy and appropriacy</p> <p><u>Belief about GTT (formulas):</u> quick way or remembering grammar</p> <p>*evidence of the impact of practice on beliefs: many successful experiences with</p>	<p><u>Belief about learning:</u> Sts should be able to recall a structure that they learnt a week before</p> <p>Learning does not happen if teachers just present information on the board and get sts to memorise it</p> <p>What worked for Katie (as a learner) would also work for her students</p> <p><u>Belief about grammar learning:</u> Sts tend to forget that you need aux and main verb in questions and negatives but not in affirmative sentences – informed by practice: Katie knows this from the feedback she got from sts</p> <p><u>Belief about teaching:</u></p>	Katie's preferred learning style

				<p>this particular class (situated nature of beliefs</p>	<p>Teaching has to be interesting and informative</p> <p><u>Belief about grammar teaching:</u></p> <p>Keeping an equal balance between grammar and communication is important: helps sts remember and use the structure</p> <p><u>Belief about learning styles:</u></p> <p>Formulas give another option to students</p>	
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## **Appendix 9: Ethical Approval form**

**University of Bath**

**Department of Education**

### **MPHIL OR PHD PROGRAMME: ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH**

**To be completed by the student and supervisor(s) and approved by the Director  
of Studies**

**before any data collection takes place**

#### **Introduction**

**1. Name(s) of researcher(s)**

Anna Csernus

**2. Provisional title of your research**

An Investigation into experienced English language teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching techniques: A cognitive perspective.

**3. Justification of Research**

The aim of this study is to shed light on the complex relationship between English teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their selection and use of these strategies in their grammar teaching practices. I am aware of two studies (Johnston & Goettsch, 2001; Sanchez & Borg, 2014) which focus on teachers' grammar teaching techniques; however, none of them explore this topic from a beliefs perspective. By conducting this study my aim is to explore not only how teachers' beliefs can impact on their practices, but also on how engaging in grammar teaching practice can influence the development of teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching techniques. In addition, this study also sets out to explore external and internal factors which can hinder or support the enactment of beliefs in practice or the development of beliefs through practice. I believe that such findings will have immediate relevance to teacher cognition research, teaching practice, and teacher education.

#### **Consent**

**4. Who are the main participants in your research (interviewees, respondents, raconteurs and so forth)?**

The participants will be in-service English language teachers, who teach ESOL courses in the UK. They will be asked to take part in three different types of interviews (a background interview, a scenario-based interview and stimulated-recall interviews). I will also observe their lessons as a non-participant observer.

**5. How will you find and contact these participants?**

I will contact directors of institutions where ESOL courses are taught. I will ask for an appointment and explain them the purpose of my research briefly. Then I will ask for their permission for contacting the teachers in the institution. I will hand out an

information sheet to both the directors and the teachers which explains the purpose of my research and the participants' role in it.

6. How will you obtain consent? From whom?

The consent forms will be sent/handed out with an information sheet. I will make sure that all my participants understand the purpose of my research and their role in it before I obtain their consent. Also, they will be made aware that they can withdraw their consent anytime, without giving me any explanation. After I have made sure that they read and understood the information sheet I will ask the participants and the school director/course leader to sign the consent form before any data collection starts.

## Deception

7. How will you present the purpose of your research? Do you foresee any problems including presenting yourself as the researcher?

Information about the purpose of my research will be partially disclosed. This means that the teachers will be aware that I am investigating cognitive factors in language teaching, but I will not specify that I am focusing on their beliefs about grammar teaching techniques and their selection and use of grammar teaching tools. The reasons for this are that 1) I would like to minimise the impact of my research on the teachers' practices and 2) too much academic information might confuse or overwhelm the teachers.

The participants will be made aware that my role as a researcher is not to evaluate or test them, but to analyse their practices in relation to their cognitions and to other influential factors. I will remind them that if I make them feel uncomfortable in any ways they can always voice their concerns and withdraw their consent at any point.

8. In what ways might your research cause harm (physical or psychological distress or discomfort) to yourself or others? What will you do to minimise this?

I am aware that being observed and interviewed can cause discomfort or even anxiety among participants. In order to minimise this I will do the following:

- I will only include teachers in the study who are happy to participate voluntarily (e.g. not paid to participate)
- I will explain to the teachers that all data will be confidential
- I will make sure that they are aware that they can withdraw their consent at any point
- I will do my best to create a friendly atmosphere to reduce discomfort
- I will make sure that my research strictly follows the BERA (2011) guidelines

## Confidentiality

9. What measures are in place to safeguard the identity of participants and locations?

In order to keep all data confidential I will use pseudonyms instead of the participants' and the institutions' real names. All data will be stored on my computer in code-protected files which only I will be able to access.



## Accuracy

10. How will you record information faithfully and accurately?

Both lesson observations and interviews will audio-recorded and then transcribed. The transcriptions will be sent out to the participants to make sure that they are accurate. I will also add my notes to them if necessary.

I will also make field notes during the lesson observations to make sure that I have an accurate record of significant classroom events.

11. At what stages of your research, and in what ways will participants be involved?

The participants will be involved at the following stages of my research:

1. Background interviews: The participants will be interviewed about their educational and professional backgrounds and their thoughts about grammar teaching.
2. Scenarios-based interviews: The participants will be presented with typical classroom situations where grammar teaching can occur. They will be asked to explain what they would do in a given situation.
3. Lesson observations: The participants' lessons (approx. 8-12) will be observed. I will act as a non-participant observer.
4. Stimulated-recall interviews: These will take place after every lesson observation. The participants will be asked to provide explanations of certain significant classroom events.
5. The participants will be asked to show me teaching materials, lesson plans and written feedback that they provide to their students.
6. After the interviews have been transcribed the participants will have a chance to check them and comment on them.

12. Have you considered how to share your findings with participants and how to thank them for their participation?

The participants will be made aware that if they are interested in the findings of my research they can contact me to set up a meeting where I can tell them about the findings. Once the data collection has been completed I will send all of my participants a letter to officially thank them for their participation.

## Additional Information


13. Have you approached any other body or organisation for permission to conduct this research? No.

14. Who will supervise this research?

Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez, Dr Katie Dunworth

15. Any other relevant information. -

<b>Student: Anna Csernus</b>	<b>Signature: Anna Csernus</b> <b>Date: 23.08.15</b>
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<b>Supervising Member(s) of Staff:</b>	<b>Signature(s): Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez</b> <b>Date: 07.09.2015</b>
<b>Director of Studies</b>	<b>Signature:</b>  <b>Date: 7/9/2015</b>

*A copy of this form to be placed in [1] the student file, and [2] an Ethics Approval File held by the Director of Studies. The Director of Studies will report annually to the Department's Research Students Committee (white paper business) on ethical issues of particular interest that have been raised during the year.*

## Appendix 10: Sample consent form



### INFORMATION SHEET

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

I am Anna Csernus and I am a postgraduate research student at The University of Bath, UK. The aim of my study is to investigate cognitive factors behind ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers' classroom decisions in relation to their grammar teaching.

**What you will do in this research:** If you decide to volunteer, you will be asked to participate in interviews and I would observe your classes. These are the type of data collection techniques that I am planning to use:

#### *Different types of interviews:*

1. During the first interview you will be asked to answer to questions about your professional background and learning experiences. (approx. 60 mins)
2. During the second interview you will be provided with scenarios of classroom situations. You will be asked to explain what you would do in the given classroom situations and why. (approx. 40 mins)
3. Interviews will be conducted after classroom observations. You will be asked to provide information about some of your classroom decisions. (approx. 30 mins after each observed class, within a week after the observation)

With your permission, the interviews will be *audio-recorded* using a digital recording device. You will not be asked to state your name on the recording.

#### *Classroom observation*

I would observe and, with your permission, audio record your classes (6-8 classes).

**Time required:** The study would take for approximately 8-10 months. (1 background interview + 1 scenario-based interview + 6-8 classroom observations and a 20-30 mins long interview after every observation)

**Confidentiality:** Your responses to interview questions will be kept confidential. Written transcripts will be made from the recording and will contain no names or details that might identify you.

A report on this study will be given to my supervisors (Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez; Dr Katie Dunworth) and to the examiners of my thesis. In addition, the findings of this study will be used in conference presentations or future publications.

**Risks:** No risks are anticipated.

**Participation and withdrawal:** Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can withdraw your consent any time, at which time all recordings and data will be destroyed.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please complete the attached consent

form. If you have any questions about this study please feel free to contact me, *Anna Csernus*, on [REDACTED] ac811@bath.ac.uk or my supervisor *Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez* from the PhD in Education programme +44 (0) 1225 385125/ H.S.Sanchez@bath.ac.uk.

Kind regards,  
Anna Csernus  
PhD candidate, Department of Education

### **CONSENT FORM**

**Project Title:** An Investigation into experienced English language teachers' selection and use of grammar teaching techniques: A cognitive perspective.

**ANNA CSERNUS, PhD, EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,  
UNIVERSITY OF BATH**

[REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]  
[REDACTED]

**Please initial  
box**

I confirm that I have read and understand the  
information sheet for the above study and have had the  
opportunity to ask questions.

☐

I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am  
free to withdraw my consent at any time, without giving  
any reason.

☐

I agree to participate in the above study.

☐

**Please tick box**

Yes No

I agree with the interviews and lesson observations  
being audio recorded.

☐☐

I agree with the use of anonymised quotes  
in presentations and publications.

☐☐

-----  
Name of Participant

-----  
Date

-----  
Signature

-----  
Name of Researcher

-----  
Date

-----  
Signature

## Appendix 11: Broader Beliefs Held by Katie

Katie												
Epis ode	1/1	1/2	2/1	3/1	3/2	3/3	3/4	4/1	4/2	4/3	5/1	6/2
Broader Beliefs (Beliefs about...)	Grammar Learning	Languages/ Language Learning	Learning	Grammar points	Learning	Grammar Learning	Grammar Learning	Grammar Points	Promoting Accuracy	Grammar Learning	Students' KAG	Grammar Teaching
	Grammar Teaching				Promoting Self-esteem	Grammar Teaching	Grammar Teaching	Grammar Teaching	Students' KAG	Grammar Points		Teaching
	Learning				Teaching	Languages/ Language Learning				Grammar Teaching		
	Teaching					Teaching						

## Appendix 12: Broader beliefs Held by Josey

Josey										
Episode	1/1	1/2	2/2	2/3	3/1	3/2	5/1	5/2	5/3	6/1
Broader Beliefs (Beliefs about...)	Activities	Grammar-Learning	Teaching	Grammar Teaching	Grammar Points	Grammar Points	Grammar Points	Grammar Points	Grammar Points	Grammar Points
	Students' KAG	Languages/Language Learning		Students' KAG	Teaching		Grammar Learning	Grammar Teaching	Teaching	Grammar Teaching
	Student Motivation	Real-Life Discourse								Promoting Self-Esteem
		Supporting Student's Development of Agency								Students' Personalities
										Students' KAG

### Appendix 13: Broader Beliefs Held by Rudy

Rudy											
Episode	1/1	1/2	1/3	1/4	2/2	2/3	3/1	4/2	4/4	5/1	6/3
Broader Beliefs (Beliefs about...)	Activities	Grammar Points	Grammar Points	Grammar Learning	Grammar Points	Grammar Learning	Grammar Learning	Learning	Students' Grammar Learning Expectations/ Preferences	Grammar Teaching	Grammar Learning
	Grammar Learning	Languages/ Language Learning	Students' KAG	Grammar Points	Beliefs about Translation to L1		Grammar Points	Students' KAG		Grammar Points	Grammar Teaching
	Grammar Points	Social Context of Teaching		Students' KAG			Students' Grammar Learning Expectations/ Preferences			Grammar Learning	Students' KAG
	Grammar Teaching										Teaching
	Students' KAG										
	Student Motivation										

## Appendix 14: Katie's use of GTTs in her observed practices

Class/ Event	Activity	Grammar content	Grammar teaching techniques	People involved
1/1	grammar revision	past simple	eliciting rules and examples, exemplification, verbal and written rules explanations, formulas, comparisons, getting students to correct grammar errors	T+Sts
1/2	class discussion about the students' weekend	past simple + regular/irregular forms of verbs	eliciting examples and rules, putting them on the board, underlining past simple verbs	T+Sts
2/1	grammar presentation	past simple and continuous, present continuous	rule explanations, provides and elicits examples (story on the board), concept questions, comparisons, colour coding, acting out examples (gestures)	T+Sts
3/1	grammar revision	countable/uncountable and singular/plural nouns	use of realia, eliciting, concept questions	T+Sts
3/2	grammar revision	quantifiers	students need to discover rules and correct errors	St + St
3/3	discussing the homework	countable/uncountable and singular/plural nouns	rule explanations, eliciting synonyms, concept and context questions	T+Sts
3/4	grammar presentation	quantifiers: <i>too much, too many too</i>	exemplification, concept and context questions, verbal rule explanations alongside written rule explanations	T+Sts
4/1	grammar revision	present perfect	diagram, verbal rule explanations, exemplification	T+Sts
4/2	class is checking a	<i>some, any</i>	examples on the board: teacher elicits the rules from the sts	T+Sts



	grammar activity (incidental)			
4/3	class is checking a grammar activity (incidental)	phrasal verbs ( <i>fall off</i> )	rule explanation, use of visual (teacher draws a picture)	T+Sts
5/1	revision: last lesson's listening exercise	modal verbs: <i>can/could,</i> <i>will/would,</i> <i>shall</i>	exemplification, eliciting, conceptual grouping according to register and function, verbal and written rule explanations	T+Sts
6/1	grammar revision and presentation	the grammar of future plans and arrangements:  <i>be going to,</i> <i>will, present continuous</i>	eliciting examples, getting students to work out meaning in pairs, analysing sentences, written rules (board & handout) with verbal explanations	T+Sts

## Appendix 15: Josey's use of GTTs in her observed practices

Class/ Event	Activity	Grammar content	Grammar teaching techniques	People involved
1/1	Grammar revision (Planned)	The future: present continuous, <i>be going to</i> , future simple	Comparisons, eliciting, exemplification (sentences and complete scenarios), acting out examples, gestures, rule explanations (verbal and written)	T+Sts
1/2	Checking homework (Impromptu)	The future: <i>be going to</i> Present continuous, future simple ( <i>Will, shall</i> )	Concept questions, examples, comparisons between grammar forms in the exercise and grammar forms in real-life discourse, explanations	T+Sts
2/1	Speaking activity (Impromptu)	Differences between <i>Do you have?</i> and <i>Have you got?</i>	Rule explanation, comparisons between the two structures, examples	T+St
2/2	Discussion after a reading activity (Impromptu)	<i>whom</i>	Synonyms, example (sentences & scenario with realia)	T+Sts
2/3	Speaking activity (Impromptu)	Third conditional	Comparisons (between the different types of conditionals, tenses within them), exemplification	T
3/1	Grammar revision (Impromptu)	Present perfect and present perfect continuous	Timelines, eliciting comparisons, examples, verbal rule explanations, identifying grammar point in a tape script	T-Sts
3/2	Grammar exercise (Planned)	strong adjectives, using intensifiers with adjectives	Eliciting, examples	T-Sts
4/1	Speaking (Impromptu)	Present perfect, present perfect continuous,	rule explanation, exemplification	T-Sts

		<i>usually vs used to</i>		
5/1	Reading activity – checking sts' understanding of the text	Passive voice	Exemplification, concept questions, written rule explanations on the board, verbal rule explanations	T-Sts
5/2	Reading – checking sts' understanding of highlighted expressions from the text  (Impromptu)	Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives	Applying the rule for grading regular adjectives on an irregular adjective in to explain its form and meaning, metalanguage	T-Sts
5/3	Grammar focus (planned)	Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives	Written rule explanations, verbal rule explanations	T-Sts
6/1	Grammar focus (planned)	articles	Learning the grammar point in context, concept questions, verbal and written rule explanations, synonyms	T-Sts
6/2	Feedback on sts' writing homework	Any grammar	verbal rule explanations	T-St

## Appendix 16: Rudy's use of GTTs in his observed practices

Class/ Event	Activity	Grammar content	Grammar teaching techniques	People involved
1/1	Grammar focus	Modal verbs	eliciting, rule explanations, examples in context, comparisons	T-Sts
1/2	Checking vocabulary in an exercise (the meaning of willingness)	State verbs + - ing	Comparison between grammar in the classroom and outside of the classroom, examples, rule explanation	T-Sts
1/3	Listening exercise	<i>Had better + must and should</i>	Concept questions, asking sts to place <i>had better</i> on the scale between <i>must</i> and <i>should</i>	T-Sts
1/4	Class discussion after a grammar activity	Modal verbs: <i>can, could</i>	Concept questions about the use of <i>could</i> in an example sentence from the exercise	T-Sts
2/1	Cambridge First Certificate: Transformati ons	Passive voice (the verb <i>held</i> )	Comparisons between example sentences, rule explanation	T-Sts
2/2	Cambridge First Certificate: Transformati ons	Adjectives and nouns	Rule explanation, comparison between the English grammar rule and the students' L1	T-Sts
2/3	Grammar exercise	Relative pronouns	Synonym	T-Sts
3/1	Grammar focus and practice exercises	Adjectives and adverbs	Eliciting, exemplification, Written rule explanation (table) on the board, verbal rule explanation	T-Sts
4/1	Grammar focus	Quantifiers	Written rule explanations, getting students to ask questions	Sts-T
4/2	Grammar activity	Quantifiers	Eliciting, rule explanations, examples	T-Sts

4/4	Checking a grammar activity	Irregular plural form	Rule explanation (Old English plural)	T-Sts
5/1	Grammar focus	The language of hypothesising (Conditionals, wishes, rather)	Rule explanations (verbal and written on the board), Examples, Concept questions, Comparisons between the different types on conditionals	T-Sts
6/1	Grammar exercise (word formation)	Adjectives and adverbs	Eliciting, rule explanations	T-Sts
6/2	Class discussion about the exercise	Differences between 'dead, die, death'	Examples, rule explanations, eliciting	T-Sts
6/3	Checking a grammar activity	The language of hypothesising (continued)  Wishes	Example (related to a students' personal life)	T-Sts
6/4	Grammar focus	The language of hypothesising (continued)  <i>it's time, would rather, supposing</i>	Rule explanations (verbal and written), eliciting (concept questions), exemplification	T-Sts